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THE

MODERN TRAVELLER;

BEING A

COLLECTION

OF USEFUL AND ENTERTAINING

TRAVELS,

LATELY MADE INTO VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

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THE

TRAVELS

OF

MR. HANWAY

THROUGH

Ruſſia, Perſia, and other Parts of Europe, for ſettling a Trade upon the Caſpian Sea,

CONTINUED.

CHAP. X.

Dry dock contrived by Peter the Great; account of the naval power of Ruſſia; Cronſtadt deſcribed; account of Revel; deſcription of Dantzick.

THE frequent diſappointments Mr. Hanway had met to prevent his return to England, being at length got over, he reſolved to embark for Dantzick.

On leaving Saint Peterſburgh, he paſſed the palace of Strelna-Muſa; which, being on an eminence, commands an extenſive view of the gulph of Finland, near the mouth of the Neva.

The plan on which this palace was intended to be built was eſteemed more elegant than that of any in the empire; but the death of Peter the Great put a ſtop to the proſecution of it.

About fifteen miles forward ſtands the palace of Peterhoff, which is well ſituated in point of proſpect.

The next place our traveller reached was Cronſtadt, where is a dry dock, contrived by Peter the Great.

This dock reaches about ſeven hundred fathoms: is ſixty feet broad at the bottom, eighty feet at the top, and forty feet deep, having flood-gates in different parts. It was intended to receive fourteen ſhips of the line, to repair or build them dry, and afterwards float them off.

This iſland of Cronſtadt is near fifteen miles in circumference, but very barren. Peter the Great built a palace here, which is ſtill in being, and had a deſign of fixing a trade here, by cutting a canal of twenty miles along the ſouth ſide of the gulph; but it was hardly practicable.

Mr. Hanway embarked on board a Dantzick yacht, wherein he ſailed with a fair breeze to Revel, the capital of Eſtonia.

Within the wall are about ſix hundred houſes, containing near eight hundred ſouls, who are ſo particularly induſtrious, that many private families ſpin, dye, and manufacture both in cotton and wool. They live in ſuch ſecurity and eaſe, that they may ſleep with their doors open.

This town was formerly one of the greateſt ports on the Baltic, but their trade at preſent is ſmall. It is governed by the Land-Rath, compoſed of the Governor and twelve noblemen, or gentlemen, who determine all matters relative to the province by a majority of votes; but there is a liberty of appeal to the College of Juſtice in Saint Peterſburgh.

The town-houſe is an ancient building, remarkable only for ſome paintings, which they hold in great repute; as, the Judgment of Solomon, Saint John the Baptiſt beheaded, the Trial of Suſannah, and our Saviour's Sentence of the Adultreſs.

They

They have four Lutheran churches for the citizens, and one for the peaſants of the adjacent country, beſides two Greek churches for the uſe of the Ruſſians.

The largeſt and moſt ſuperb is the great church of Saint Olaus.

From Revel he ſailed with a fine gale, and ſoon reached the Height of Gotland.

It belongs to the Swedes, and was formerly very rich, but is reduced, by having been often plundered in time of war.

The next day he paſſed the Ruſſian fleet, and on the ſucceeding morning arrived in the Viſtula, having run near two hundred leagues from Saint Peterſburgh.

The Viſtula has two branches up to Dantzick. Two miles from the town ſtands a caſtle, intended as a defence to it.

The houſes in this city are generally five ſtories high, with four or five ſtone ſteps, and a balcony at the entrance.

The inhabitants are, for the moſt part, pleaſing in their appearance. Their women are exceeding handſome, and much like the Engliſh in their ſtature, countenance, and air.

The moſt reſpectful manner of ſaluting a woman of diſtinction here is, by kiſſing her hand, or the hem of her garment; which cuſtoms ſeem to be taken from the Poles.

They have an Engliſh factory, and the citizens live much after the manner of England, and ſupport regular clubs.

This city is above three Engliſh miles in circumference, fortified with lofty works, and a double ditch of water: it is ſubject to the crown of Poland.

The chief curioſity here is the great Lutheran church, reputed above three hundred years old; which remains *by treaty* in the ſame manner it was

in the time of Popery, as to crucifixes, images, pictures, &c.

In particular they ſhew a celebrated piece of painting of the reſurrection, done by Van Eyck, in the year 1400. They repute it to be the firſt picture done in oil-colours; and, by the help of the varniſh, it is yet ſo delicately perfect as to bear the ſtricteſt inſpection.

Within the double works that defend the town is a ſpacious walk, and a road for coaches; near which are depoſited the bodies of five thouſand Ruſſians, who fell in one morning by an obſtinate attack upon the place, led by Count Munich.

The moſt conſiderable part of the Dantzick trade is in corn, which the Polanders bring down the Viſtula in large barks. In plentiful ſeaſons they ſometimes amount to the number of ſixteen thouſand.

They likewiſe import iron from Sweden in great quantities; but a very inconſiderable portion of woolen, and other Engliſh manufactures.

Their exportations conſiſt chiefly of bees-wax, narrow linens, ſacking, pipe-ſtaves, and oak-planks. This latter article will not ſtand the weather like Engliſh oak; but under the water is eſteemed equally good.

When our traveller quitted the territories of Dantzick, (which extend weſtward near five Engliſh miles,) he paſſed the convent Oliva, famous for the treaty in 1660, when Charles XII. of Sweden had conquered almoſt all Poland.

The next place he reached worthy note was called Stolpe, a ſmall city, well inhabited, and ſurrounded with corn and meadow-lands. Three ſquadrons of one hundred Huſſars each were quartered here.

About eight miles forward ſtands Coeſlin.

Stargard next demanded his attention, the metropolis of Pruſſian Pomerania. In this place are four churches; one whereof is a cathedral, built with brick,

brick, of great antiquity. In the others, ſervice is performed every Sunday in French.

He paſſed through ſeveral other towns and villages till he arrived at Koeninſburg.

In this place is a very pompous church, embelliſhed by the late King, at a conſiderable expence, with a fine organ, and ſeveral images of the apoſtles and angels.

On the north bank of Augermund, the palace of the Margrave of Schwedt makes a very ſtriking appearance, being built in great taſte, and the gardens laid out very elegantly.

As he approached Berlin, the face of the country began to improve. From Dantzick to this capital is computed at fifty-ſeven German miles, equal to about two hundred and fifty Engliſh.

CHAP. XI.

Account of Berlin; city of Berlin deſcribed; character of the King of Pruſſia, &c.

THE entrance into Berlin is airy and elegant, the ſtreets are regular and clean, and the houſes uniform.

With regard to the curioſities at Berlin, the firſt object is the King's palace, which, according to the original plan, would have been a moſt ſuperb ſtructure, but has never been completed.

The walls of the grand front are not leſs than ſeven or eight feet thick; ſo that the rooms, not receiving ſufficient light, are ſeen to great diſadvantage.

The apartments in this palace are adorned with ſilver in every particular; and that ſo maſſy, that four millions of dollars might eaſily be realized, when any exigence ſhould require it.

The picture of Charles V. and his Empreſs, are framed with ſilver, ſo richly, that each frame is ſuppoſed to weigh near ſeven hundred Engliſh

gliſh pounds; and there is a grand crown-luſtre, ſuppoſed to weigh about two thouſand pounds.

The hall has ſeveral fine paintings; and in the grand ſaloon are four curious pieces of tapeſtry, repreſenting our Saviour driving out the money-changers, his waſhing the apoſtles feet, his draught of fiſhes, and laſt ſupper.

The throne in the audience-chamber is of velvet embroidered with gold in a grand taſte, but not loaded with ornaments.

In one apartment, in the old quarter of the palace, is a crimſon velvet bed, which has above two hundred cyphers, with electoral crowns, ſet in pearls, and chairs in the ſame taſte. In this bed it is uſual to lodge perſons of the royal blood on their wedding-night.

The arſenal, which is an elegant ſtructure, forms one ſide of the palace; but has rather too great a profuſion of ornaments.

In the library, which would be deemed a mean apartment for a common ſchool, are five hundred Bibles of different languages and editions; among which is the ſame which King Charles the firſt uſed when he was beheaded. It was given, as a relick, by Biſhop Juxon to the Elector of Brandenburg.

Beſides ſeveral manuſcripts on religion, morals, politicks, &c. they ſhew the Koran in a ſmall octavo; the character ſo minute, and the paper ſo thin, as to form only one inch and an half in bulk.

The cabinet of curioſities has few diſtinguiſhed rarities; the chief are as follow: a marble Cupid, much admired; two cannon-balls, which meeting in the air, through their warmth and violence, were united together; and laſtly, an oak with ſtag's horns; the ſtag having been hunted, with great vehemence ran his horns into a young tree, and there expired; the conjunction now appears as a natural production.

The

The new chapel, which, though low, is neat and commodious, was deſigned by the King; for there is no art but he has ſome knowledge of. He intended it for a royal ſepulchre, and has already cauſed ſome tombs of his predeceſſors to be erected in it.

The moſt elegant modern edifice is the opera-houſe. The ſcenes are ſplendid, and of an exquiſite taſte. In has three galleries, and is reckoned to contain above two thouſand perſons. The orcheſtra conſiſts of fifty muſicians.

This amuſement is entirely ſupported at the King's expence; and the great knowledge he has of muſick, together with the delight he takes in it, have brought this entertainment to a great perfection.

On each ſide of the ſtage ſix trumpeters are fixed, who ſalute the Queen-mother, and Queen-conſort, when they enter and retire; but the King, who acts in a ſphere above pomp, excuſes this ſalutation to his own perſon.

The city of Berlin has a regular, though not very formidable, fortification.

It abounds with regular ſtreets and elegant ſtructures, and is ſaid to be near one third as big as London.

The number of inhabitants has increaſed greatly within late years, which is owing to the good conduct of the preſent King, in granting privileges and lands ſufficient to induce many people to ſettle there.

Conſidering the government is ſo extremely deſpotic and military, and the country deſtitute of foreign trade, trade may be ſaid to flouriſh. They make woollen cloth ſufficient for the army, and great part of their private conſumption; and Sileſia is well known to produce a large ſupply of linens.

His preſent Majeſty was born on the 24th of January, 1712.

The great œconomy of his government and perſonal expence is very remarkable; the allowance of of his table being but thirty crowns a day, fiſh and wine excepted, in which he is extremely ſparing.

Potſdam is his favourite reſidence, where he avoids the empty ceremonies of a court. When he ſits down to table, after his own Miniſters, and thoſe of foreign princes who happen to be there, are ſeated, his own officers, even to the Enſign, fill the vacant places.

His converſation is free and eaſy, even to jeſting: but he can paſs from the gay to the ſerious in an inſtant; and ſupports his dignity rather from the affection than the fear of his ſubjects.

His countenance is inclined to the penſive, but very expreſſive, indicating, in ſome meaſure, the inceſſant labour of his mind. He generally appears in regimentals, which are a blue cloth frock with ſilver Brandenburgs; and his dreſs, in general, is ſo negligent, that he ſeldom is poſſeſſed of more than one change for the winter, and one for the ſummer.

In regard to filial duties, few private perſons have treated their mothers with more reſpect than he is ſaid to have approached his; which was with the higheſt reverence, and always uncovered.

Beſides his great ſkill in muſick, he has a taſte for poetry; and his Memoirs of the Houſe of Brandenburg will always be a laſting proof of his abilities as an author.

He goes to bed, and riſes early, and beſides the buſineſs of his cabinet, can enjoy his favourite pleaſures and muſick; in which laſt he compoſes as well as performs.

About a mile from Berlin ſtands Charlottenburgh, founded by the King's grandfather, and now finiſhed by his grandſon in a moſt exquiſite taſte.

Three miles forward ſtands Potſdam, where the King's guards are quartered, who are about two thouſand

thouſand men; of great ſtature and comelineſs, well cloathed, and diſtinguiſhed by ſilver-laced hats and cockades.

The number of troops in the King's pay are generally computed at one hundred and thirty thouſand men.

The arms of the huſſars are a light muſket and ſabre. They are cloathed in a coarſe red cloth made cloſe to their bodies, and ſtrengthened at the elbows with leather in the ſhape of a heart.

Their breeches are of well-dreſſed ſheep-ſkins, their boots ſhort and light, the ſoles very durable, and their caps ſtrengthened ſo as to bear a cut.

Beſides the huſſars, the King has a ſmall body of men called Hunters, reputed the moſt faithful couriers in the whole army. They have pieces loaded with ſingle balls, and their buſineſs is to mark out the officers of the enemy, in which they are very dextrous.

The Pruſſian troops are always remarkably neat and clean, their cloathing very ſhort. The frequent repetitions of performing their exerciſe hardly gives them leiſure to be idle or wicked.

Their pay is about fourteen-pence a man, per week, and bread allowed them; and one very peculiar piece of conduct in the Pruſſian army, is, that the ſoldiers, as well as all the officers of the crown, receive their pay before it is due.

The whole revenues of the houſe of Brandenburg are computed at one million four hundred thouſand pounds, which ariſes from a tax of about half the rent of the lands, and near forty per cent. on all eatables, ſoap, candles, &c. notwithſtanding which, the advantages ariſing from the œconomy and regularity which runs through every branch of the government, and more eſpecially in the parſimony of the court, make the peoples' chains ſit eaſy, and ſecures their property enough to animate their induſtry.

CHAP. XII.

Deſcription of Sans Souci; Molſberg; Dreſden; Solomon's Temple; Chineſe palace, and an account of the Saxon porcelain.

SAns Souci being in the neighbourhood of Potſdam, it may not be diſagreeable to take ſome ſmall notice of it, before we quit the electorate of Brandenburg.

This building ſtands on an eminence, commanding an agreeable view of the town, together with a ſmall branch of the Spree, and ſeems to have been intended as a ſummer-houſe and library to the palace of Potſdam.

The apartments are for the moſt part on the ground-floor, and elegantly finiſhed. In the garden are ſome fine pieces of ſtatuary, done by Nancie, of Paris; particularly a Venus drawing a net, and a Diana with game.

Our traveller purſued his journey, and after paſſing through a tolerable agreeable country, arrived at Wittenburg, famous for a manufactory of coarſe cloths.

The wool in this country being remarkably fine, they have five hundred private manufactories. Here is alſo an academy, in which ſeven hundred ſtudents are inſtructed in literature, as well as the arts of dancing, fencing, and all polite accompliſhments.

They ſhew the Sokoloff church, a building of three hundred years ſtanding, where Martin Luther firſt preached the doctrine which occaſioned the revolt from the Roman church.

Luther is interred here; but has no monument more than a ſimple braſs plate with an inſcription: his original portrait at length painted on wood, and preſerved ſince 1540.

Wit-

Wittenburg is a fortified town, ſituated near the Elbe.

The deer and wild-boars are ſuch nuiſances, that in every town of note the inhabitants are obliged to watch, by rotation, all night long, with bells, to frighten them from their corn.

Dreſden is the metropolis of the electorate of Saxony. It ſtands on a plain, ſurrounded with high ſandy hills, which have been converted into vineyards; but the fruit is not much commended.

This city is well fortified: it ſtands on both ſides of the Elbe, the communication being effected by a ſtone bridge five hundred forty feet long, and thirty-ſix broad, in which ſpace are eighteen arches.

One ſide of this bridge is appointed to lead to the new, and the other to the old city. Near the latter it is adorned with a braſs crucifix of curious workmanſhip, fixed on a ſtone pedeſtal, whereon are the emblems of death and the devil, repreſented by a human ſkull and a ſerpent, in braſs.

Dreſden being an ancient city, the ſtreets are narrow. The buildings make an elegant appearance, but are inferior to thoſe of Berlin. The apartments are for the moſt part neat, though ſmall.

The trade of this place is not very conſiderable. Their moſt material article is ſilver, of which the mines near Fridburg produce every fifteen days near the value of twenty thouſand dollars, which is brought into the city in ingots, and immediately coined and delivered to the proprietors.

The Saxons pretend there are thirty thouſand towns and villages in their electorate, among which, they ſay, are four millions of ſouls.

They are generally eſteemed to be good ſoldiers. This King's guard conſiſts of two thouſand men, half Polanders, and half Saxons. They are tall, well-made, and comely; their regimentals, arms, &c. very well ordered; and their exerciſe is after the Pruſ-

ſian.

ſian manner, but our author cannot anſwer for its being ſo perfect.

This regiment is cloathed in red; but all the infantry wear white, with various facings. The King's horſe-guards have buff-coats richly embroidered with gold, with a ſun on their breaſt, and another on their back.

Saxony labours under heavy calamities on account of the jealouſy ariſing from their different religions. The eſtabliſhed Lutheran clergy are jealous of thoſe of the reformed church, which is kept much in ſubjection, while both think themſelves injured by the countenance given at court to the Roman catholicks.

According to the conſtitution of Saxony, the Roman catholicks can no more have a church in Dreſden, than their Elector can, without profeſſing Popery, be King of Poland.

A chapel, however, for the former ſect is connived at, which is ſmall and neat; but the Romiſh church is a fine pompous ſtructure, ſo richly adorned with ſtatues and architecture, that art and expence ſeem to contend for the ſuperiority.

The eight apartments of the Grune-gewolbe, and the twelve chambers of the Kuntſkamer, are reckoned great curioſities here. They are filled with many trinkets of exquiſite art, collected at a vaſt expence.

The firſt apartment contains one hundred ſmall ſtatues, curiouſly wrought in braſs, of Centaurs, Mercury, &c. but in particular there are equeſtrian ſtatues of Auguſtus II. King of Poland; Frederick-William the Great, and Lewis XIV.

The third apartment is of ſilver, curiouſly wrought in variety of figures; particularly a large fountain, and four vaſes of a prodigious ſize.

The fourth contains veſſels of pure gold, and of ſilver gilt. The pannels of it are looking-glaſs. There are, beſides, many enamelled cups and pieces of plate, whereof they boaſt the antiquity.

The

The fifth consists chiefly of precious stones, worked with great art; a cup of lapis nephriticus; a statue of Charles II. of England; and a piece in wood, of the angel Michael vanquishing the devil, which was done in England, and, though but two feet high, cost two thousand five hundred pounds.

The other three apartments are chiefly filled with precious stones, worked into various figures.

The greatest curiosity, however, is the throne of the Great Mogul, performed in silver figures, enamelled colours, and adorned with jewels. Here are potentates prostrating themselves with presents, attended by elephants, soldiers, and servants in their several stations.

From this Mr. Hanway went to gratify his further curiosity in the twelve chambers of the Kuntskamer; the first whereof contains a large collection of prints, from the very commencement of the art of engraving to this time.

The second is the mineral gallery, where are the earth, soil, and ore of every country; particularly the tin, lead, copper, silver, and gold of the mines of Saxony. There are many pieces of gold above two inches high, and silver above six inches.

The most extraordinary thing here is a magnet of two feet and an half, not quite an ounce in weight, which supports near five pounds of iron.

The third chamber consists of things petrified, such as pieces of wood, animals, fishes, and birds eggs in their proper nests. These are all supposed to come from the waters of Karlsbad, which have this particular effect.

In the fourth is a cabinet with three hundred and fifty squares in wood, all of different sorts, and each as big as the palm of a large hand. In this apartment is the picture of a man and his wife, who lived near Tarneswar. He reached the age of one

hundred

hundred and eighty-five, and ſhe that of one hundred and ſeventy-two years.

The fifth apartment is a ſmall cabinet of ſkeletons and other anatomical curioſities.

The ſixth conſiſts of the ſkins of many ſorts of animals ſtuffed; more particularly crocodiles, leopards, monkies, ſtags, &c. and ſeveral monſtrous births of beaſts.

The ſeventh is of ſkins of fiſhes ſtuffed, chiefly that of the ſea-lion.

The eighth is lined with a vaſt quantity of various ſhells.

The ninth apartment is of amber, of which material there is a cabinet ſix feet high, and four feet broad.

The tenth is a grotto of water-ſprings.

The eleventh has many curioſities in coral.

The twelfth contains the ſkeletons of lions, bears, &c. of a prodigious ſize, and ſtuffed ſkins of ſome extraordinary beaſts; eſpecially of a horſe, whoſe mane is three ells and an half long, and his tail welve ells.

Beſides theſe apartments, there is another more remote, which holds a model of the temple of Solomon cut in cedar. It coſt twelve thouſand crowns, and repreſents the ark, the ſanctum ſanctorum, the ſacrifices, and all other rites and ceremonies of the Moſaic law.

The King's gallery of pictures was the next curioſity; which, ſince the purchaſe of the Duke of Modena's collection, is one of the fineſt in the world: it is valued at five hundred thouſand pounds.

The Chineſe palace (ſo called from the taſte of the building) claimed his next attention. It ſtands on the Elbe, and commands a view of the bridge and the Roman chapel.

The

The vaults of this palace conſiſt of fourteen apartments, filled with China and Dreſden porcelain; among which are ſeveral figures of all kinds of beaſts and birds, as large as the life.

The manufacture of this porcelain was firſt attempted by Baron Botgar, a minor, about the year 1715; ſince when it has gradually ariſen to its preſent ſtate of perfection.

There are above ſeven hundred men kept in pay, whoſe annual expence is eſtimated at no more than eighty thouſand crowns; and the manufacture yields to the king two hundred thouſand crowns yearly, beſides the magnificent preſents he occaſionally makes, and great quantity preſerved for his own uſe.

CHAP. XIII.

Palace of Count Bruhl; deſcription of Meiſſen; palace of Saint Hubertſburg; account of Leipſig; view of Koethen and Magdeburg.

THE great paſſion and genius for ſplendor and amuſements that reign at this court, is very remarkable: ſix thouſand five hundred ducats are yearly allowed for comfits, and ſuch articles, which is near twice as much as the King of Pruſſia allows for his whole table.

The palace of Count Bruhl well deſerves notice, where there is a gallery of pictures incomparably more magnificent than that of the King, being one hundred and fifty-ſix ells long, which is eighteen longer than that of Verſailles.

The library, which is in the garden, is two hundred and twenty feet long, and well furniſhed with books.

The King's gardens are very agreeable: the palace in them is ſmall, but the avenue leading to it exceedingly grand.

The

The revenues of the Elector of Saxony are ſaid to be near one million five hundred and ſeventy-ſix thouſand pounds; which ariſe from the taxes on lands, and a capitation of ſix dollars on all males, when they are made apprentices, or begin to work.

People of a higher rank are taxed according to their claſs, and ſubject to be called to account, if they put themſelves in a lower ſituation than is conſiſtent with their eſtates. Even foreigners pay capitation, after being ſix months in the country. Jews are taxed at fifty, their wives at thirty, and children at twenty dollars. There is alſo an exciſe on all eatables and liquors; and ten per cent. levied out of the incomes of the people.

The hardſhips which the Saxons labour under may be dated from the year 1706, when Charles XII. of Sweden, glutted his army with the ſpoils of their whole country, except Dreſden.

Our traveller left Dreſden and took the road to Meiſſen, and was much pleaſed with the romantic ſituation of the houſes, being moſtly built on rocks, which aroſe perpendicular from the river.

The caſtle of Meiſſen, in which is the porcelain manufactory, ſtands on the weſtern bank of the Elbe, three German miles from Dreſden. It is a large building, and tolerably well defended.

There is no admittance to the moſt common part of the work here, without an order from the Governor of Dreſden; nor are the workmen ever ſeen without the gates of this ſtrong hold.

Five German miles further is the palace of Saint Hubertſburg, intended entirely for the pleaſure of hunting. It is large, but not very magnificent.

The ſix apartments intended for the Queen, are lined with green damaſk, laced with gold; and thoſe for the King with crimſon in the ſame taſte. In one of the apartments is a picture of Saint Francis Xavier,

vier, ſupported by an angel, done in crayons by the hands of the King's daughter.

Several towns and villages, which, together with the ſurrounding lands, afforded a very pleaſing view, lay in his journey between this place and Leipſig; which was but few miles diſtant.

Leipſig is one of the greateſt trading towns in Germany; and has been diſtinguiſhed, through a ſeries of years, by a liberty of conſcience indulged to all ſorts of people. As a conſequence of this indulgence, they have been very induſtrious in the cultivation of knowledge and moral accompliſhments, of which the univerſity eſtabliſhed here remains a proof of it, though not in ſo flouriſhing a ſtate as it has been formerly.

The chief wealth of this city conſiſts in wool; beſides which, they have many rich manufactures, and are remarkable for painted cloths in imitation of tapeſtry. They have three annual fairs here, namely, New-year's-day, Eaſter and Michaelmas, which were all conſiderable formerly, but now that of Eaſter alone remains ſo.

To theſe fairs the inhabitants of all parts of Germany reſort, beſides French, Italians, and even Ruſſians, with their reſpective merchandiſe. They are ſupplied with tobacco, of which they conſume a prodigious quantity, from Magdeburg.

The inhabitants within the gates of the city, are computed to be about forty thouſand, whereof many are French refugees. The ſuburbs are, beſides, very populous.

The Lutheran is the eſtabliſhed religion, for which they have ſix churches; they have one for the reformed; and a chapel for Roman Catholics in the caſtle; which laſt is forbid the uſe of bells.

It is a cuſtom with the inhabitants to ſhut their ſhops every friday morning; and they are ſuch ſtrict obſervers of their regulations herein, that whoever

ſhall, on that day, preſume to ſell any thing during the time of worſhip, is liable to a fine of ten crowns. The city of Leipſig is ſmall, but the buildings are lofty and elegant.

On leaving Leipſig, the firſt place worthy note our adventurer deſcried was Hall, which is ſubject to Pruſſia, and famous for its ſchools and univerſity, more eſpecially for ſtudents of phyſic.

In ſome few hours more he arrived at Koethen, a very conſiderable place, and reckoned to contain near fifteen thouſand inhabitants. In this place is the principal manufacture of gold and ſilver lace of Germany.

The ſecurity of travelling throughout Germany, is a circumſtance very agreeable. The people are naturally ſerious, the duties of morality are early taught, and ſo ſtrictly inculcated, that theſts and robberies are hardly known in time of peace.

From this laſt place to Magdeburg, the road is particularly good and pleaſant. On his entrance into Magdeburg, it being on Sunday, he obſerved a band of vocal muſicians ſinging at the doors of the citizens, as was the cuſtom always after morning-ſervice.

They have two reformed, one French Lutheran, and eight German Lutheran churches here; all which have been rebuilt ſince the year 1631; at which time the town was ſacked and burned, and the inhabitants put to the ſword by the Emperor's general Count Tilly.

In the time of that fatal cataſtrophe, it is related in the King of Pruſſia's Memoirs of the houſe of Brandenburg, that twelve hundred virgins drowned themſelves in the Elbe, to preſerve their chaſtity from the violation to which it was expoſed.

The fortifications of this place are ſtrong; and defended by three regiments, to the number of about four thouſand men.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIV.

Account of Helmſtet; Wolfenbuttel; deſcription of Brunſwick; Herenhauſen; Zell and Zoerhendorff; ſtate of the Britiſh factory of Hamburg.

THE next place our traveller entered was the city of Helmſtet, belonging to the Duke of Brunſwick. It is ſurrounded by an old fortification, and had at this time a garriſon of two hundred of the Duke's troops.

In the city are two hundred ſtudents, who are chiefly ſupported by the bounty of their ſovereign.

The road from hence to Wolfenbuttel is tolerably good.

Within a few miles of the great road are ſeveral mines of iron, copper, ſilver, and, ſome perſons ſay, gold. Indeed the Duke of Brunſwick's dominions, as well as thoſe of the Elector of Saxony, derive a conſiderable part of their revenues from the variety of ore they are poſſeſſed of.

That of a deep emerald with ſilver-coloured points is moſt remarkable, and is reputed to contain a proportion of gold.

Mr. Hanway next proceeded to Wolfenbuttel, whoſe fortification is regular, but not very ſtrong. It is ſurrounded by a moat ſupplied by the ſmall river Okar, which affords water to the inhabitants.

An ancient palace of the Duke's ſtands without the walls, which is rather convenient than grand.

There is alſo a good arſenal, and a well collected library belonging to the city. The whole road from Wolfenbuttel to Brunſwick is bordered by trees and groves. The fortifications of Brunſwick are conſiderable, and the walls lofty. It is the reſidence of the Duke of Wolfenbuttel; to which family the King of Great Britain being allied, he takes the title of Duke of Brunſwick.

The

The number of troops in this ſmall place is ſaid to be thirteen thouſand: the reaſon why they ſupport ſo many is, in order to be of mutual ſervice to their allies, as they ſometimes receive ſubſidies from foreign princes.

The Brunſwick troops are very clean: their men are ſmaller, their arms lighter, and their exerciſe leſs exact than that of the Pruſſians; but they are cloathed much after the ſame manner.

On the ramparts is a very curious braſs mortar-piece, made in 1411. It is ten feet ſix inches long, and nine feet two inches diameter, weighing one thouſand eight hundred quintals. It will carry a ball ſeven hundred and thirty pounds weight to the diſtance of three thouſand three hundred paces; and will throw a bomb of one thouſand pound weight, but requires fifty-two pounds of powder.

The revenues of this place are ſaid not to exceed two hundred and ſixty-two thouſand pounds; yet the oeconomy of the court is ſuch, that, though it it is numerous, all ſorts of theatrical and muſical entertainments are continually kept up, and foreigners receive great ſatisfaction and civility.

The Duke's palace at Saltzdalen is well worthy notice. The gallery of pictures here, is a noble apartment, and the paintings well executed. The left wing is furniſhed in a groteſque manner with porcelain china; and the other full of enamelled ware, great part whereof is ſaid to have been done by Raphael Urbin.

There are many originals in painting, which deſerve much commendation. The Aſcenſion by Vougerman is greatly eſteemed. The Woman of Samaria in one piece, and Judith with her attendant in another, holding the head of Holofernes juſt cut off, the face yet retaining ſome marks of life, are both happily imagined and beautifully expreſſed.

The

The dutchy of Brunſwick carries on a conſiderable trade with Bohemia. Their land is well ſtored with hops, preferable to any in Germany.

Our traveller next proceeded to the electorate of Hanover. The firſt place he paſſed through was Paine, in the biſhoprick of Heldeſheim, now ſubject to the Elector of Cologn, whoſe troops were at this time quartered in it.

The chief part of the road from hence to Hanover is very ſandy; but the ſoil is good, and ſome pleaſant groves adjoining, render it not diſagreeable.

Hanover may juſtly be deemed an elegant place, though not equal to Berlin or Dreſden. That part which is called the new city, has many agreeable buildings in it. It is watered by the Leina, which communicates with Bremen, but carries on no trade of any ſignification.

In the King's ſtables are thirteen compleat ſets of coach-horſes, extremely beautiful, beſides others for the ſaddle. The ſtables themſelves are magnificent. Part of the palace has been lately rebuilt, on account of a fire which damaged it greatly ſome years ſince.

The King's forces in this electorate, are reputed to be near twenty-four thouſand. The adminiſtration, when the King is abſent, is conducted by a Council of State; during which time, the guard is always mounted, and open table kept; beſides which, they have two plays and two concerts a week during the whole winter.

The revenues of the electorate are about four millions of dollars, (ſeven hundred thouſand pounds,) the greateſt part whereof ariſes from the ſilver mines. The number of inhabitants can ſcarce exceed fifty thouſand.

But the place moſt admired, is the King's palace at Herenhauſen, which lies two miles to the northward of the city.

The garden, however, may juſtly claim attention, being ſuperior to any in Germany. One ſide is covered by a piece of water, above a quarter of a mile in length. The jet d'eau, which was erected by Mr. Benſon in the year 1716, is perhaps ſuperior to any thing of that ſort: it throws the water above ſeventy feet high.

A ſylvan theatre, in the German taſte, is likewiſe to be ſeen here, where both plays and maſquerades are frequently exhibited; on which occaſions it is very grandly illuminated.

Zell is a large place, and well fortified. It formerly belonged to the Duke of the ſame, but by marriage has devolved upon the houſe of Hanover.

In this place are four Lutheran, one French, one Dutch, and one Roman Catholick church. The buildings, being chiefly of wood, are for the moſt part very mean.

The inhabitants carry on a ſmall trade with Bremen, by means of the river Aller; and generally afford quarters to a regiment of ſeven hundred men.

From hence to Weiſſendorff the country was very barren. This electorate, indeed, furniſhes Germany with mutton; Brandenburg and Weſtphalia produce hogs; and Hungary affords beef.

Some four German miles forward ſtands Zahrendorf; the country ſtill abounding in heaths, and the air unwholſome.

The next day, as he approached the banks of the Elbe, the adjacent lands began to wear a more agreeable aſpect.

The paſſage over the Elbe (which he was obliged to croſs in order to reach Hamburg) is near ſix miles. Some of the banks of this river are very lofty, and exhibit a moſt pleaſing view of ſeveral ſmall iſlands in the middle of it.

The

The Britiſh factory at Hamburg, which removed hither from Flanders, has been poſſeſſed of privileges ever ſince the year 1610, perhaps more diſtinguiſhed than any commercial body whatever. Theſe were confirmed by a convention with the regency, and the Hamburghers found it highly their intereſt to indulge them.

This factory is incorporated into a company, which is compoſed of a Governor, a Deputy Governor, and thirteen members. The whole number of the factory was ſaid, at this time, ſcarce to exceed fifty perſons.

All diſputes among themſelves are decided by a majority of voices, as are alſo agreements relative to their dealing with the burghers; with this difference, that on ſuch arbitrations they have a deputation of two Senators to act with them.

They have a chapel erected for their own uſe, very conveniently finiſhed. Their conduct is, in general, truly juſt and amiable; but their trade is not ſo conſiderable as it has been heretofore.

CHAP. XV.

Deſcription of Hamburg, Altena, and Bremen.

HAMBURG (reputed to have been ſo called from the adjacent foreſt of Ham) is very ancient; and through its reputation for laws, and happy ſituation for trade, has been long ſupplied with opulent inhabitants.

Their houſes are lofty and ſtrong, and ſeveral of them very neat. Wheel-carriages are now very frequent, though they were ſcarcely known here about fourſcore years ago.

The inhabitants are chiefly mercantile; for there are very few mechanicks. Their principal manufactures are ſugar-baking and callico-printing. Gold

and

and ſilver-lace, ſilks and ſtockings, are alſo made here, but in no conſiderable quantities.

The number of inhabitants in the city is computed at one hundred and eighteen thouſand; thoſe of the ſuburbs and adjacent villages may amount to half as many more.

Their ſoldiery, including their wives and children, are ſuppoſed to be ten thouſand; and there is about the ſame number of foreigners.

Their women are in general bred up with ſo much reſerve, that they go veiled. The better ſort of both ſexes are, however, remarkably polite and affable.

Their chief purſuit is trade, therefore they have no appearance of ſtate and grandeur; yet, at particular ſeaſons, are not wanting in point of gay amuſement.

Their government conſiſts of four Burgomaſters, who uſually receive from their offices one thouſand pounds a year; particularly the two elder, who have the diſpoſal of many inferior offices.

Their perſons next in rank are twenty-four Senators, whoſe dreſs much reſembles the ancient habit of the Spaniards. Fourteen of theſe are choſen from among the merchants, and ten bred to the ſtudy of the law.

A Senator's ſalary is about two hundred pounds a year; but, being choſen for life, their perquiſites are ſuppoſed to be conſiderable.

Suits at law are determined by the Senate alone; but all criminal affairs by the Senate and Burghers.

The chief weight of the executive part of the government lies on four lawyers, who act as Secretaries of State; beſides whom there are four other Secretaries.

There are five pariſhes, with a capital church to each.

They have a remarkable ancient cathedral, called the Dome, governed by a Dean and ſecular Canons.

It

It was built in the time of Charlemagne; but is now partly under the juriſdiction of his Britannic Majeſty, as Duke of Bremen and Verden.

The Lutheran is the eſtabliſhed religion; and there is very little toleration given to others. The Jews, indeed, are ſomewhat indulged, and ſupport themſelves by commerce and brokerage; but the Roman Catholicks are objects of extreme jealouſy.

The œconomy obſerved in this city is a great reſtriction to the pleaſure and amuſements of the inhabitants; the gates being ſhut very early, and not a wicket ſuffered to be opened on any account, after the appointed hour, though they might raiſe a conſiderable income by ſuch indulgencies.

The territories of this city are but ſmall: they are bounded on the north-weſt ſide by a conſiderable fort, erected on an eminence, which alſo ſerves as an outwork. Altena, on the weſt, is within half a mile. To the north they have only one mile; but on the eaſt, along the banks of the Elbe, the dominion extends near ſixteen.

This place may be conſidered to Germany what Amſterdam is to the reſt of Europe; a magazine of the different produce and merchandize of the trading world. Many of their houſes, on the banks of the river, are ſituated ſo low, that veſſels may unload into their warehouſes. They alſo export great quantities of Sileſia linens, under the name of Hamburg.

A great part, indeed, of the latter article of traffic is fallen into the hands of the merchants of Altena; and the improvements in different arts at many other places, ſuch as Lubec, Copenhagen, Saint Peterſburgh, &c. have greatly diminiſhed the trade of Hamburg lately.

The neighbourhood of Altena, has been long conſidered by the Hamburghers as an object of jea-

louſy; and that with reaſon, as it has many advantages in regard to ſituation.

Altena is a large place, but carries very little appearance of opulence, nor does it add much to the revenues of Denmark.

The town now appears as new, having been burned down in the war with Sweden, in the year 1713. They have one piece of policy among them, in order to encreaſe the inhabitants and ſtrengthen their trade, namely, that they encourage all religions.

On our adventurer's departure from Hamburg, his curioſity induced him to decline the common path, and make the beſt of his way to Bremen; to reach which place, the firſt part of his rout lay through Blankeneſs.

This road, being ſituated on the more exalted banks of the Elbe, affords a moſt agreeable and extenſive view of part of the Hanoverian dominions on the weſt, and of the Daniſh territories in Holſtein, on the eaſt of that river.

The ferry at Blankeneſs is very ſmall, and, unleſs wind and tide are both favourable, the paſſage is dangerous; which circumſtances are rendered more diſagreeable by the obſtinate inſolence of the Daniſh boors, whoſe cuſtom is to delay paſſengers while they determine, at a certain game, whoſe lot it ſhall be to attend them.

The breadth of the river here is about an Engliſh mile; and near as much farther, up a ſmall creek, lies Crantz, a mean village, in the Hanoverian territories; where, as in all theſe ſmall places, though there is no regular poſt, the peaſants are obliged to ſupply travellers with horſes at ſtated rates.

Crantz, however inconſiderable, extends above two Engliſh miles. It is built on the top of an high bank, to reſiſt the overflowing of the Elbe.

From

From this place he had the ſatisfaction of paſſing through a fertile ſpot, abounding with meadow and corn-land, for two German miles, till he arrived at Buxtchude.

His road from thence to Otterſburg, after paſſing through Cloſter-ſeven, exhibited a much leſs-agreeable view; the country being moſtly of woods and heath.

At Otterſburg he found two companies of Hanoverian ſoldiers quartered.

On each ſide of the road, within an Engliſh mile of Bremen, three ſtones are erected with the Britiſh arms engraved, denoting the boundaries of the Hanoverian dominions.

Bremen is ſituated on each ſide of the river Weſer, over which there is a bridge.

It formerly belonged to the Swedes, but was ſold by the Danes, who conquered it, to the Elector of Hanover in the year 1716.

Notwithſtanding this bargain, but a ſmall quantity of the city is ſubject to that electorate; in which quarter ſtands the remarkable dome church.

The other part is regulated by its own magiſtracy and laws. The magiſtrates are four Burgomaſters and twenty-four Senators, choſen out of the Calviniſts, for whom, as their perſuaſion is the eſtabliſhed religion, there are five churches.

The number of inhabitants is about thirty thouſand; whoſe circumſtance and manner of living appear very comfortable.

Their ſtreets, in general, are narrow; their ſhops are plentifully ſtocked with merchandize; and there are ſeveral well-built houſes, which make a genteel appearance: over the doors and windows of many of them *ſoli deo gloria* is inſcribed in large characters, both within and without.

In the market-place is the figure of a man in armour, who is reported to have ſaved the city, when

in the moſt imminent dangen, from the Swedes. They call it a Royland, from the name of a general, by whom they were made a free people.

The General being of a remarkable ſtature, they have endeavoured to commemorate him amply, by making the figure about fourteen feet high.

The trade of Bremen is conſiderable, notwithſtanding the vicinity of Hamburgh. From France they import great quantities of ſugar, tobacco, and other Weſt-India commodities, with ſeveral manufactures from England; beſides which they deal largely with Hanover, Saxony, and Bohemia for corn, linen, timber, and minerals.

Their traffick would be much more profitable and extenſive, but that ſhips of burthen cannot come within two miles of the town; which deficiency they are obliged to ſupply with ſmall fly-boats.

CHAP. XVI.

Obſervations on the road, between Bremen and Amſterdam; deſcription of the city, &c.

HEAVY rains having fallen during our traveller's ſtay at Bremen, he found the road from thence to Wildeſhuſen very marſhy; which however was in ſome meaſure compenſated by a long cauſeway.

About a mile from Bremen, he re-entered the Hanoverian dominions. Wildeſhuſen is a principal place, and the reſidence of the High-bailiff of the diſtrict; of which there are about twenty-five in theſe dominions.

The next evening he arrived at Kloppenberg, a mean town, in the juriſdiction of the Biſhop of Munſter.

Loningen alſo has the ſame advantages, but in itſelf is equally inconſiderable.

When

When he reached the banks of the river Ems, he diſcovered Lingen, a town tolerably fortified. It is in the circle of Weſtphalia, and ſubject to the King of Pruſſia.

Indeed the regularity of the buildings here, together with the behaviour and œconomy of the inhabitants, give apparent proofs of being under Pruſſian regulation.

This place devolved to the houſe of Brandenburg on the death of King William III. who formerly poſſeſſed it.

On our author's nearer approach to the dominions of the United Provinces, he could not but remark, at Northorn, and other villages, the people to be almoſt blinded by ſmoak ariſing from the conſiderable quantity of turf they abound in.

The next place he ſtopped at, worthy notice, was Amello, a neat town in the province of Overyſſel, where they have a manufactory of fine holland. In fact, the greateſt part of our linen, diſtinguiſhed by that name, is made in Sileſia, and only bleached in the United Provinces.

When he had paſſed through Amello, the ſeveral villages began to exhibit all that appearance of neatneſs, for which the Hollanders are ſo juſtly famed.

Four German miles from this town ſtands Daventer, a large city in the ſame province, ſituated on the river Uſſel.

Over the river is a conſiderable bridge of wood, for the paſſage whereof a heavy toll is paid. This place was formerly a hanſe-town, but is now ſubject to the States. It is ſtrongly fortified, their houſes and ſtreets neat, and well ſupplied with manufactures; and their trade, though wholly inland, is tolerably large.

About the midway between this and Voorthuſen, (to which place they have a regular poſt) ſtands Loo, a ſeat of the Prince of Orange.

From hence, till he reached Ouverlach, the country was ſandy, and gave no appearance either of induſtry or opulence; but then the very extenſive plantations of tobacco, denoted it worthy of all the commendation the world beſtows on it.

The conſumption of this leaf, throughout the provinces, is extravagant; and by the inhabitants reputed highly neceſſary, on account of the moiſture of the climate.

Amersfort (the next town he entered) ſtands in the province of Utrecht, on the ſmall river Ems. It is very extenſive and antique.

The inhabitants are chiefly ſupported by their tobacco-manufacture. The people in general wear wooden ſhoes, as a defence againſt their brick floors, and frequent waſhing.

About two miles further is Soeſdyke, a palace belonging to the Prince of Orange, where he has a park near eight Engliſh miles in circumference.

The road to Haarden is extremely pleaſant; the adjacent country being well improved and inhabited, but the turnpikes are very numerous.

The fortification at Haarden is conſiderable, being chiefly compoſed of a broad double mote filled from the ſea, which has made frequent inroads on it.

It has been often plundered in ancient wars: in the year 1486 it was burnt down; after that, the Spaniards maſſacred the inhabitants, on the revolt of the United Provinces; in 1672 it was taken by the French, but ſoon retaken by the Prince of Orange.

Amſterdam is diſtant from hence but two German miles: the whole country abounding in rich paſture-lands, and delightful gardens.

On the banks of the canals, the road having been made at great coſt, there are ſeven tolls to be paid.

The avenue leading to the city is remarkably beautiful, being a fine cauſeway, adorned on each ſide with

with many ſmall villages and gardens belonging to the citizens.

They always ſhut their gates here at ſix in the evening; yet, on a certain toll being paid, travellers are admitted till ten.

The city of Amſterdam is about three leagues in circumference; and is more properly called Amſteldam, meaning thereby the dam of the river Amſtel, and has been always ſo nominated in ancient records.

It is certainly, taken all together, a monument of great art and labour; notwithſtanding which, on a ſtrict examination, it can afford no degree of pleaſure to any perſon, whoſe turn of mind is not wholly employed in lucrative conſiderations.

The walls of the city began to be conſiderably enlarged about the year 1600, ſince which time they have received daily improvements.

Their greateſt ſtrength conſiſts in the difficulty of acceſs both by ſea and land; which, though ſo great an advantage in repelling an enemy, by no means obſtructs the progreſs of their own commerce.

The œconomy of the Hollanders, in every particular, is ſo remarkable, that even on the numerous baſtions of their fortifications here, they have windmills placed.

Their ſtreets, though too narrow in general for convenience and beauty, are extremely neat. Their hired coaches are fixed on ſledges, whereon all kinds of merchandize are likewiſe carried.

Carriages of perſons of diſtinction are indeed on wheels, but they are obliged to pay an extravagant tax for ſuch a liberty.

The principal ſtreets and quays, eſpecially the Keyzargraft, and Keeregraft, being planted on each ſide with trees, would be unexceptionably pleaſant, but for the ſtench which the adjacent canals frequently throws out.

Their houſes are more to be admired for their neatneſs, than either elegance or convenience: the nature of their climate renders it neceſſary to waſh them often, which particular piece of induſtry is ſo attended to by many of the natives, as to make them neglect the neceſſary care of their perſons.

The furniture of their apartments is generally neat, ſometimes rich. The rooms themſelves are, for the moſt part, floored and pannelled with marble.

Amſterdam is thought to be one-third as populous as London or Paris. They reckon twenty-ſix thouſand five hundred houſes, and about two hundred and forty thouſand inhabitants to be within the walls.

The Exchange, which is the principal rendezvous of all the merchants, was finiſhed in the year 1613. The inſide is two hundred and fifty feet long, and one hundred and forty broad; but in architecture and embelliſhments is much inferior to ours.

It is ſupported by forty-ſix pillars, which are marked with their ſeveral numbers, and occupied occaſionally by the merchants, ſo that each perſon may be found at his reſpective ſtanding.

The chief defence of this city can neither be accounted troubleſome or expenſive; it being by a militia formed entirely of Burghers, who are the ſafeſt and propereſt guardians of their own wealth and liberty.

There is great toleration given to difference of religious opinions, ſo long as the ſtate remains unmoleſted by eccleſiaſtical diviſions and feuds.

Calviniſm is the eſtabliſhed faith, for which the Dutch have eleven churches, the Engliſh one, and the Germans and French two for each.

Beſides theſe, there are near thirty places of worſhip for the Roman catholicks, partly compoſed of chapels, and partly of apartments in private houſes.

There are likewiſe Lutherans and Anabaptiſts reſident here, and a conſiderable number of Jews, who have

have their chief ſynagogues as in London. It is however obſervable, that none but the Calviniſts are permitted the uſe of bells.

All marriages which are not conſonant with the rites of the eſtabliſhed church, are invalidated, unleſs the parties are previouſly engaged before a civil magiſtrate; after which they may perform the ceremony where they pleaſe.

The diſcipline and conduct of the Dutch in relation to their public charities is particularly laudable, and ſeems to exceed that of any other country, as there are none of their poor who do not perform ſome uſeful labour.

The dykes towards the North ſea are ſaid to be yet more lofty, and ſupported by piles, at an extravagant expence. Notwithſtanding the unwearied art and induſtry of the inhabitants, the frequent inroads of the ocean have rendered their ſituation very precarious.

In the year 1530, great part of Zealand was overflown; in 1568, ſeventy-two villages on the coaſts of Holland and Frieſland were ſwallowed up, and almoſt twenty thouſand perſons periſhed. The inundation in November 1665, is ſaid not only to have broke down the dyke of Muydenberg, but alſo that of Amſterdam and Haerlem. Accidents of this ſort are, however, not ſo great an alarm to them as might be ſuppoſed, the inhabitants knowing the uſual ſeaſons for expecting them. Their lands are alſo eſteemed to be more fertile through ſuch inundations, and great part of their defence lies therein, inaſmuch as they have it in their power to lay the country under water whenever they pleaſe.

Holland is ſuppoſed to pay half the tax of the Seven Provinces, and Amſterdam half of the province of Holland. The whole revenues of Amſterdam are computed at one million ſterling.

This country has certainly not owed its opulence to any native commodities, but to mere dint of induſtry, and flouriſhes by improvement and manufactures of foreign growth.

Their trade, in its birth, was chiefly built on the ruins of Antwerp, which was once the miſtreſs of the commercial world, till the zeal of prieſthood, and inſolence of military privileges, deſtroyed its glory; though the decline of the Portugueſe traffick, and that of Hamburg (already mentioned) have undoubtedly given great aſſiſtances to it.

Sir William Temple affirms, the Dutch had little foreign trade, except to the Indies, till the year 1670; but Amſterdam, in its preſent ſituation, may juſtly be deemed a magazine of timber, corn, wine, and many other commodities of foreign European production.

The peculiar excellence of the inhabitants conſiſts in dyeing, ſugar-baking, bleaching wax and linen, and manufacturing paper, ſail-cloth, ſilk and wool.

They have alſo large repoſitories of gold and ſilver, precious ſtones, drugs, &c. from different parts of the world; beſides which, their whale-fiſhing, Eaſt-India trade, and more eſpecially their ſpices, (of which they are very careful,) bring them in immenſe advantages.

Their trade with Great Britain is in linens, flax, ſail-cloth, tiles, juniper-berries, &c.; in return for which, they import lead, tin, tobacco, and coals, but in much leſs quantity than what we take from them.

Their herring-fiſhery is alſo very material to them: beſides the home-conſumption (which is far from being inconſiderable) they export prodigious quantities to foreign markets; inſomuch, that in the year 1601, the Dutch are reported to have had one thouſand five hundred buſſes, beſides ſmall veſſels, *employed in carrying* on this branch of traffic only.

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The great taſks they execute with their windmills, is almoſt incredible. Their more principal uſe is to grind woods and other materials for dyeing, make paper and gun-powder, beſides numberleſs inferior purpoſes.

Their eaſe and diſpatch in ſawing timber, is perhaps the reaſon why they can build ſhips much cheaper than elſewere.

The town-houſe in Amſterdam is the moſt remarkable building they have; the foundations whereof were laid in the year 1648, and in ſeven years after, the magiſtrates took their ſeat in it. It coſt upwards of three hundred thouſand pounds: the dimenſions of it in front are two hundred and eighty-two feet, in depth two hundred and thirty-two, and in height one hundred and ſixteen, excluſive of the cupola. No leſs than thirteen thouſand piles were driven to fix the foundation; yet, on the whole, to give the juſteſt and moſt conciſe account of it, it may be conſidered as a grand and uſeful ſtructure, but neither elegant nor pleaſing.

The ſtadt-houſe is guarded all night by a body of Burghers, being the grand treaſury of the United Provinces. In the lower apartments, which are called the Bank, are depoſited immenſe riches, the keys whereof are intruſted to the four regent Burgomaſters.

The bank here differs from that in London in this peculiar article, namely, that all caſh is lodged without paying intereſt; and as it only receives the beſt and pureſt coin, what they call their bank-money bears a premium of four or five per cent. more than current caſh. Their accounts are kept with ſpecial truth and regularity, which is indeed highly neceſſary, as they have no bank-notes.

One article more it may be proper to mention, which is much to the honour of the Dutch; that, in conſequence of looking on themſelves as a trading

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nation, and that trade dependant on good civil administration, no perſon of what rank or opulence ſoever thinks the inferior civil offices beneath his regard and beſt care.

CHAP. XVII.

Account of Haerlem; Leyden; view of the Hague, Delft, and Rotterdam.

HAVING thus gratified his curioſity in this great metropolis, Mr. Hanway embarked at the Haerlem-gate, in one of their ſtage-boats, which are moſtly very commodious, as they ſet out at ſtated hours, and ſeldom vary the time of their paſſage.

The canal here is bounded with rich meadow-land, well ſtocked with horned cattle; but very few houſes are to be ſeen.

The town of Haerlem, which he reached in two hours and an half, is extremely neat, and remarkable for manufacturing and bleaching linen.

They have a large garriſon of ſoldiers; but their fortifications conſiſt moſtly of a lofty brick wall. It is reported to have flouriſhed in the year 1155, ſince which time great part of the town has been deſtroyed by fire, in two different revolutions. There are twelve churches in the town, four whereof only are of the eſtabliſhed religion. In the name and by the invention of one Lawrence Coſter, who lived in the fifteenth century, Haerlem claims the art of printing.

There being few things worthy remark here, our traveller embarked for Leyden. Their manner of treating their cows here, is to cover them with body-cloths, affirming that ſuch an additional heat abundantly increaſes the quantity and quality of their milk.

Leyden is well known for its antiquity; and its univerſity, which is in great reputation, draws toge-

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ther a conſiderable number of ſtudents from all parts of Europe. The city is very neat, and the gardens about it fertile and agreeable, and they have a very ſtrong garriſon.

One inconvenience attends this city, uncommon in the United Provinces, namely, a ſcarcity of water; nor have they a ſufficient communication with the ſea, to keep the little they are ſupplied with ſweet, by regular tides.

The behaviour of the inhabitants, when beſieged by the Spaniards in the year 1574, well deſerves to be taken notice of. They amounted to about twenty thouſand only, and ſupported a ſiege of five months with ſuch uncommon ſpirit and aſſiduity, that even the women aſſiſted in military operations.

A Burgomaſter in particular, when his friends intreated him to ſurrender the garriſon, told them, it was indifferent whether he were cut to pieces by them or by the enemy; that they might take his body and divide among them; he ſhould expire contented, could he but be able to preſerve them, though for a ſingle hour.

Their gallant conduct and endurance was, however, providentally rewarded, by the timely interpoſition of Count Lewis of Naſſau, who forced the Spaniards to retire.

In three hours after his taking leave of Leyden, Mr. Hanway arrived at the Hague; which, though ſo long made famous by political negociations, goes under the denomination of a village.

The inhabitants here are remarkably polite and affable; and the number of carriages belonging to the nobility and gentry, together with a general gaiety of dreſs, make it appear one continual ſcene of delight.

The ſtreets are broad, and the houſes, for the moſt part, well-built, though the town is not encloſed.

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The Hague is eſteemed very healthful, and may be conſidered either as a great city, or a delightful rural retreat; the adjoining lands and gardens affording moſt beautiful landſcapes, at the ſame time that the inhabitants are entertained with plays, muſic, and all gay amuſements, as in the greateſt metropolis.

Beſides the number of ſtrangers which are drawn together here on account of foreign ambaſſadors, perſons of the firſt diſtinction throughout the United Provinces meet here, as it is a place of aſſembly for the States-general.

Not far from hence ſtands the Houſe in the Wood; a palace ſo called, belonging to the Prince of Orange.

The moſt remarkable ſeat hereabouts is that of Count William Bentinck, which is generally frequented by perſons of taſte; but the gardens are the chief object of their admiration. Theſe gardens are agreeably diverſified, adorned with lofty trees, and ſeveral ſorts of hanging-walks; they perhaps claim their principal beauty from their peculiarity, moſt of the ſeats in theſe parts lying on a dead flat.

The Hague may be juſtly called the court of the Prince of Orange, who was made Stadtholder in the year 1745, which title had been extinct ſince the time of William III.

The Dutch are for the moſt part little given to gaiety of any kind; their hours being wholly employed in the conſideration of gain. They pay very little attention to the improvement of their ſentiments; and even their religion ſeems more a duty of compulſion than choice among them.

Even their women, except ſome few court-ladies, have very little taſte, or delicacy of addreſs: add to this, that as there are few beautiful women among them, a good complexion is generally their beſt recommendation. Their teeth, for the moſt part, are bad, which may probably be owing to their frequent

uſe of hot liquors; and they ſeldom bear children after the age of thirty.

Before we entirely leave this country, it may not be diſagreeable to ſum up their general character in the words of Sir William Temple.

"Holland," ſays he, "is a country where the "earth is better than the air, and profit more in re- "queſt than honour; where there is more ſenſe "than wit, more good-nature than good-humour, "and more wealth than pleaſure; where a man "would chuſe rather to travel than to live; ſhall "find more things to obſerve than deſire, and more "perſons to eſteem than to love."

Three miles from the Hague ſtands Delft, which Mr. Hanway reached in an hour's time. This place is very ancient, principally remarked for the earthen-were known by the ſame name.

Rotterdam, which is ſeven miles further, may be juſtly accounted little inferior to Amſterdam; and in regard to the trade of Great Britain, and the ſouth-ern parts of Europe, much ſuperior.

Ships of burthen are here conveyed into the very heart of the city, through the commodious breadth and depth of their canals.

The dealings, in Rotterdam, in tobacco, corn, and rice, which they chiefly import from England, are conſiderable. They have great quantities of tal-low from Ireland; in lieu whereof they ſend flax, which commodity is much cultivated in all the United Provinces. Beſides theſe, they have great magazines of Eaſt-India goods. They have a very good exchange for the tranſaction of all mercantile affairs, and it was finiſhed no later than the year 1736.

Among the buildings of note, the moſt worthy obſervation is the great church of Saint Lawrence, adorned with ſeveral monuments of great perſonages, and particularly one of De Wit.

A ſtatue,

A ſtatue, in commemoration of the learned Eraſmus, is erected on the chief bridge; near which place he is reported to have been born, in a ſmall houſe, in the year 1467.

Rotterdam boaſts the eſtabliſhment of a conſiderable Britiſh factory, compoſed chiefly of North-Britons; for whoſe uſe there is meeting-houſe erected in the city.

By united aſſiſtance and contributions of the Engliſh officers, mariners, and merchants an epiſcopal church was built during the war in Flanders under the Duke of Marlborough, which is eſteemed the only regular church, of the kind, eſtabliſhed for Britiſh ſubjects, out of Great Britain.

The factory live ſparingly, though with great ſatisfaction and conveniency, and are peculiarly diſtinguiſhed for their hoſpitality.

The moſt ſpeedy conveyance from Rotterdam is in a yacht to Newſluys, and thence to Helvoet by land. The town of Helvoet is in itſelf very inſignificant, having only three ſtreets and a quay belonging to it, though the harbour is ſteemed preferable to any in the United Provinces.

Wedneſdays and Saturdays are the appointed times for the Harwich packet-boats to ſet out; in one of which Mr. Hanway embarked ſoon after his arrival, and in twenty-two hours landed at Harwich.

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THE

NATURAL HISTORY

OF

NORWAY;

By the Right Reverend

ERICH PONTOPPIDAN,

Biſhop of Bergen in Norway, and Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen.

INTRODUCTION.

THIS excellent author pleads that the pious motive of his undertaking, is to prove the exiſtence of a God from all his works, and to teach the Norwegians to look up, through nature, to him, and with hearts full of gratitude, as no other country in the world can boaſt ſo many, or ſuch ſurpriſing phænomena, as are to be ſeen in their country. Thus this good biſhop, beſides his perſonal inſtruction to thoſe under his care, ſtill extends it as far as he can, by enabling the natives of Norway to edify themſelves every moment; and certainly the ejaculatory praiſes of hearts filled with a due ſenſe of the wonderful works of the deity, muſt be infinitely more acceptable to him, than the hurried mumbling over inarticulated, nay often, not underſtood prayers, enjoined

enjoined on the generality of people in ſome nations of Europe. The ignorant clergy in thoſe kingdoms can ſooner bid to ſay prayers, than ſhow how to contemplate their Creator in the appearances of nature; for to be able to do ſo, requires a previous application and ſtudy, which they are but too commonly averſe to.

He owns an honeſt and virtuous pride, in following, by this diſplay of northern nature, the illuſtrious precedents laid down in other climates, by Boyle, Derham, Nieuwentyt, and others: with thoſe excellent men he deſires to be claſſed. He juſtly deſerves the eſteem of all ingenious enquirers, and the veneration of the Norwegians, for the high and flattering idea he gives of their country—to wit, "Norway, "and more eſpecially that part where providence has "been pleaſed to ſettle me, which, according to its "name, almoſt wholly conſiſts of mountains, in "which few parts of Europe can be compared to it; "and conſequently, according to the above obſervation, few contain more remarkable Naturalia."

In another place—"Norway conſidered in general, "in the *Singularia Naturæ et Providentiæ* ſurpaſſes "moſt countries, and not only in its inanimated "treaſures, ſuch as metals, minerals and vegetables, "but in the various kinds of beaſts, birds, and fiſhes; "and particularly the laſt, ſcarce any parts of the "univerſe afford ſuch a diverſity and abundance."

PART I.

THE air, together with the light, warmth, humidity, and other properties thereof, varies much more in Norway, than in moſt European countries. This may be well concluded, without perſonal experience, from the vaſt extent of the country, of three hundred Norway miles from Cape Lindenaes ſouth, to the North Cape on the borders of

of Ruſſia: through the air, it is but two hundred and two miles and an half: the circuit acroſs the mountains and vallies, or by water, increaſes it to above three hundred miles. Its breadth, from the frontiers of Sweden weſtward to Cape Stett near Sundemoer, is ſixty-five miles; but from thence the country becomes gradually narrower towards the North.

They chiefly regulate their obſervations by the horizon of Bergen, where the longeſt day conſiſts of nineteen hours, the ſun riſing at half an hour paſt two, and ſetting at half an hour after nine; and the ſhorteſt is only ſix, the ſun not riſing before nine, and ſetting at three.

As in the beginning of the year, the day-light increaſes with remarkable celerity: ſo it decreaſes at the approach of winter in a like proportion. In the middle of February, they are able to read without difficulty at ſix in the morning, which, at the ſame hour in October is not poſſible: the cauſe of this being manifeſtly the inclination of the earth towards the poles, needs no further explanation.

In the ſummer-nights, the horizon, when unclouded, is ſo clear and luminous, that at midnight one may read, write, and do every kind of work as in the day. In the diſtrict of Tromſen, which is properly the extremity of Norway, towards the iſlands of Finmark, the ſun is continually in view in the midſt of ſummer, and is obſerved to circulate day and night round the North pole, contracting its orbit (the common miles of Norway are computed to be about one fourth larger than a German mile, at which rate, they are near equal to five or ſix Engliſh meaſured miles) and then gradually enlarging it, till at length it leaves the horizon; ſo that in the depth of winter it is inviſible for ſome weeks, and all the light perceived at noon, is a faint glimmering of about an hour and a half continuance,

which,

which, as the ſun never appears above the horizon, chiefly proceeds from the reflection of the rays on the higheſt mountains; the ſummits of which are ſeen more clearly than other objects. However, this glimmering is not their only light; for, beſides the moon-ſhine, which, by reflection from the mountains, is exceedingly bright in the valleys and creeks, theſe northern people, when their day-light is contracted to ſix hours, find conſiderable relief from the North light called *Aurora borealis**; it often affording them all the light neceſſary to their odinary labours, eſpecially as it is now, both here and elſewhere, more frequent and extenſive than formerly.

This light is void of heat, and of the ſame nature with that light which the people of Norway call Moor-Ild: the latter proceeds from an agitation of ſalt-water in a dark night, which hath been every year obſerved by the herring-fiſhermen, when towing their nets along in a calm; for the ſea appears in a kind of flame, as far as the nets reach, whereas before the motion of the nets, not the leaſt glimpſe of light was diſcernible. In freſh-water lakes, there is no ſuch flame apparent; it being formed by the ſaline particles, which, upon a motion of the ſea, begin to ſparkle, and cauſe an effulgence. The ſame has been likewiſe obſerved in navigation. For, as in a dark calm night, the courſe of a fiſh is perceivable by a long and increaſing track of light upon the water; ſo the water behind a ſhip under ſail, appears luminous to a conſiderable diſtance.

This igneous effulgence is to be ſeen in the ſea at all times; but frequently happens at an approaching alteration of the weather, and on the change of the winds to the ſouth-weſt, when the ſaline particles of the ſea are thrown into a kind of fermentation. In

* The north light is well known in England, and eſpecially in the North parts, where, by reaſon of its deſultory motion, it is called morrice-dancers, merry-dancers, and ſtreamers.

like

like manner, the Northern lights do not always appear, but only at particular ſeaſons, when the ſaline corpuſcles of the air are agitated by a natural fermentation, when according to ſome, the lower region of the air is filled with nitrous vapours, which is whirled round, and then is formed that light in the air called the *Aurora borealis*, or North-light; which, according to the general opinion, is a *brutum fulgur*, or lightning without thunder; conſiſting, as lightning generally does, of inflamed ſulphurous particles, but burning with much leſs vehemence.

Some perſons of credit aſſert, that theſe *fulgura ſpuria* are not always without a crack or ſound; for in a glaring north-light, and calm weather, a diſtinct ſound has been heard, with an exploſion in the air, like the ſudden breaking of the ice.

There are many however who conſider the Northern light only as a mere reflection, or reverberation, though not from the flame of any volcanos, but from the ſun, when, far below our horizon, it meets with ſome evaporating clouds, at ſuch a height as to be within the contact of the ſun's beams in their aſcent.

From ſun-ſet to a little paſt midnight, the *Aurora borealis* is ſtrongeſt. The degrees of heat and cold are very various, and this not only from the annual viciſſitudes of the ſeaſons; but in the very ſame ſeaſon, and on the ſame day, the variableneſs is greater than ſtrangers can well conceive.

On the eaſt-ſide of Norway, or from the frontiers of Sweden to Filefield, that is, in moſt of the provinces, the winter's cold generally ſets in about the middle of October, laſting till the middle of April, when the air is there as cold as at the extremity of the temperate zone. The waters are frozen to a thick ice, and the mountains and valleys covered with ſnow. However, this is of ſuch importance to the welfare of the country, that, in a mild winter,

the

the peaſants who live among the mountains, are conſiderable ſufferers; for without this ſevere froſt and ſnow, they can neither convey the timber they have felled to the river, nor carry their corn, butter, firs, or other commodities in their ſledges to market-towns, and after the ſale of them, carry back the neceſſaries they are ſupplied with.

When the winter rages with ſuch ſeverity in the Eaſt parts of Norway, that all the freſh-water rivers are frozen, the lake and bays are open on the weſt ſide, though lying in a direct line with the eaſtern parts: the air is miſty and cloudy, and the froſts ſeldom are known to laſt a fortnight or three weeks. In the center of Germany, which is two hundred leagues nearer the line, the winters are generally more ſevere, and the froſts ſharper than in the dioceſe of Bergen, where the inhabitants often wonder to read in the public papers, of froſt and ſnow in Poland and Germany, at a time when no ſuch weather is felt here. The harbours of Amſterdam, Hamburg, Copenhagen, and Lubeck are frozen ten times oftener than their's are; for with them, it is generally known not to happen above two or three times in a whole century; and, which is yet more extraordinary, when the harbour of Bergen is frozen, the Sienne, at Paris, may be concluded to be in the ſame condition. Thus the winter at Bergen is ſo very moderate, that the ſeas are always open to the fiſhermen and mariners; and it is ſeldom that the bays and creeks are frozen over, except thoſe that reach far up in the country towards Filefield, where they meet with keen and dry north-eaſt winds blowing from the land *. In the other parts, towards the weſtern coaſt,

* As far as the 80th or 82d degree, the north-ſea continues open and navigable both winter and ſummer, except in the creeks and along the ſhore in Finmark, Iceland, and Greenland, from whence the large maſſes of ice detached are ſeen to float in the ſea. In *winters of extraordinary* ſeverity, when the Baltic is frozen up, the ſwans,

coaſt, it is but ſeldom that any hard winter or laſting froſts are heard of, though travellers, who perhaps come from or beyond Filefield about twenty miles eaſtward, ſay, they have had ſevere winters there for ſome time paſt.

This amazing difference is, according to the wiſe deſign of the Creator, requiſite for the well-being of the country; for, as it has been already obſerved, the eaſtern parts require a hard winter for their ſubſiſtence, and a mild winter and open weather is no leſs neceſſary to the weſtern parts, where the inhabitants chiefly maintain themſelves by their ſea-fiſheries. It is expedient for them, that the ſea ſhould be open for them during the whole winter; for, from the middle of January, the herrings, ſkates, cod, &c. are chaſed by the whales towards the coaſts, when the peaſants ſally out in multitudes from the creeks into the ſea, and thus get a great part of their ſubſiſtence for the whole year; and ſeveral thouſands of the northern peaſants of both ſexes, during January and February, paſs the whole day upon the open ſea, and only towards the approach of night, betake themſelves to their huts in the neighbouring iſlands. This mildneſs of the winter is likewiſe neceſſary for the curing and ſalting of fiſh, which in froſty weather would be ſpoiled and uſeleſs: for if the fiſh ſhould freeze as ſoon as taken out of the water, the ſalt could not penetrate into them, being obſtructed by the ice; and if carried home, and kept till a thaw comes on, they ſoon become flaccid and putrified at the bone, and conſequently unfit for uſe: a ſufficient evidence of the abſolute neceſſity and great benefit of a mild winter, to the weſtern parts of Norway.

ſwans, which otherwiſe are not to be claſſed among the birds of this country, tranſmigrate hither to procure themſelves water, which they are deprived of; and the few ſwans, which are ſtill to be ſeen at Syndford and other places, were refugees from Denmark in the years 1708 and 1740.

If it be farther aſked, how it is poſſible that nature can regulate herſelf by the neceſſities of the inhabitants, and give them froſts and thaws at the ſame time, under the ſame climate; the anſwer is, that it is no miracle, but purely the reſult of the primary natural diſpoſition of things. It is a general rule, that Norway, from its ſituation on the globe, muſt have ſevere winters: but the exception from this rule lies here; the weſtern ſide of Norway lying neareſt to the greaſt ocean, its air muſt be ſenſibly milder, the intenſe froſt being warded off by the conſtant intermixture of warm exhalations, vapours, and miſts from the ſea, which in the lower region of the air, inſenſibly diſſolve the almoſt imperceptible ſharp particles of ice that proceed from the north pole, or congeal in the cold upper regions of the air; but are melted as ſoon as they fall in with the warm vapours of the ſea. That theſe exhalations abate the natural rigour of the weather, cannot be doubted; but whether they ariſe from the warm ſprings at the bottom of the ſea, continually boiling by means of the central fire; or if this be denied, whether this ebullition be the effect of leſſer ſubterraneous volcanos, reſembling the mountainous ones on the ſurface of the earth, it would not be pertinent here to determine.

In moſt of the provinces, eſpecially all the eaſtern ones near Filefield, the intenſeneſs of the winter is extreme, particularly in the levels on the mountains; which are far more expoſed to the ſeverity of the air than the valleys, and reach towards the upper region of the atmoſphere, which is much colder than the lower, as the reflection of the ſun is there leſs powerful, and the air more rarefied The uſual degree of the cold, eſpecially in January and February, may be ſufficiently conceived from hence; that the largeſt rivers, with their roaring cataracts, *are ſtopped* in their courſe by the froſt; and the very

ſpirit

ſpittle is no ſooner out of the mouth, than it is congealed, and rolls along the ground like hail. A farther inſtance of the extreme cold, not unworthy notice, is, that no ſooner has a horſe dropped his excrements on the ice, than the balls of horſe-dung move and leap on the ground: the cauſe of this, is the ſudden change from heat to cold, which occaſions a violent conflict, when the ſharp and denſe air penetrates forcibly into the lighter, and expels it *.

It is neceſſary to uſe great caution in providing againſt ſuch weather, in which an unexperienced or unguarded traveller may be deprived of his noſe and ears. It is particularly expedient to cover the face; and for this, the moſt approved method is to fix a piece of gauze under the hat, which both retains the warm effluvia iſſuing from the body, and keeps off the piercing air better than would be imagined; allowing at the ſame time light enough to guide the horſe. Some, now and then, rub their face with a handful of ſnow, as enabling it, better than by warmth, to bear the cold; but in long journies, over the higheſt mountains, where the air is much keener and the winter quite inſupportable, no precautions would avail, without the convenience of the Mountain-ſtoves, as they are called, which are kept at the publick charge, for the repoſe and warmth of travellers. Of the neceſſity of theſe, and the impracticableneſs of the mountainous and deſart parts

* The air towards the north, is, in winter-time, full of innumerable particles of ice and ſnow, which are frequently ſo large and ſenſible, that when the wind blows freſh, they dart into the face, and give it a pain like the ſmart of a ſwitch; and they are not only felt, but when the cold is very intenſe, and the ſun ſhines clear, theſe particles may be viſibly diſcerned, glittering like ſo many little ſtars. And this accounts why the north wind is of a more penetrating coldneſs than any other, that in its paſſage it ſweeps along the ſnowy mountains of the north. and thus becomes impregnated, as it were, and loaded with theſe particles, or *lamellæ niveæ et glaciales*, which occaſions ſuch a ſharp cold,

in the winter months, the Swediſh troops, to the number of ſeven or nine thouſand, afforded a moſt melancholy inſtance in February 1715, that periſhed in a moſt deplorable manner on the mountain of Ruder or Tydal, which ſeparates Jempteland, in Sweden, from the dioceſe of Drontheim; when they were found, ſome ſitting, ſome lying, and ſome in a poſture of prayer, all frozen to death.

The wiſe and provident Creator has not left the inhabitants of theſe cold climates, without a greater variety of preſervations againſt the weather, and more means of keeping themſelves warm, than other countries. Firſt, the country abounds in large foreſts, affording them plenty of fuel, and timber for building ſtrong houſes. Secondly, the wool of the ſheep, and the furs and ſkins of wild beaſts, furniſh them with warm lining for their cloaths, and good bed-covering. Thirdly, the innumerable flights of wild fowls ſupply them with down and feathers. Fourthly, the mountains themſelves ſerve them for fences and retreats: their ſummits, indeed, are uninhabitable, on account of the cold and barrenneſs; but the ſhelving ſides, or interſtices, eſpecially where the expoſure does not face the north or eaſt, enjoy weather that is at leaſt ſupportable But, above all, it is to be obſerved, that even the cold air occaſions warmth in the bodies of men; its compreſſive force rendering the body more firm and compact, and fortifying it againſt external injuries: and thus the natural warmth is by the cloſeneſs of the pores repelled towards the inner vital parts, and more particularly concentrated in the ſtomach; ſo that the northern people are known to digeſt ſmoked fleſh, dried fiſh, and other food hard of digeſtion, better than any other nation *.

Having

* The particles of the atmoſphere are more condenſed near the *poles*, and conſequently preſs more forcibly on bodies, than in the *expanded and rarefied* air in hot climates; inſomuch, that one thou-

ſand

Having treated of the cold, it is now proper to ſpeak of the heat of Norway.

In the laſt ſummer-months, the air is not only warm; but ſometimes to ſuch a degree, that in the vulgar phraſe, "It may make a raven gape;" and perſons who have been born and educated in hot climates, might fancy themſelves ſuddenly tranſported home *.

The cauſe of theſe violent heats (which, however, are but of ſhort duration) may be partly derived from the vallies encloſed within high mountains, where, the rays being compreſſed and confined, the reverberation of them from all ſides muſt occaſion ſuch heats, as, were the ſummer of any conſiderable length, would bring grapes, and other fruit and vegetables, to the like exquiſite perfection as in other countries. The ſecond, and which is the chief cauſe, is, that, in the midſt of ſummer, the ſun's abſence below the horizon is ſo ſhort, that there is no night, at leaſt no total darkneſs; conſequently, neither the atmoſphere nor mountains have time to cool; but often retain part of the heat of the preceding day; and if the general opinion of naturaliſts, that a mineral ſoil emits a ſulphureous and hot effluvia, be true, this may come in for a third cauſe of the heat, the country being almoſt every where full of mines.

There cannot be a more deciſive proof of the ſummer's heat in Norway, than that ſeveral vegetables, and particularly barley, grow up and ripen within ſix weeks or two months; which, beſides the great profit, is of very conſiderable advantage to the

ſand and ten pounds of copper at Drontheim, weighs only one thouſand pounds at Rouen in Normandy. Mercury riſes higher in Denmark and Sweden than in France and Italy.

ROHAULT's *Trait. de Phyſ.*

* It appears that in the countries lying far north, the great length of the days often renders it warmer than with us. WOLF's *Phyſ.*

peaſant, as it enables him to begin threſhing when he will; which he is often under a neceſſity of doing very early. It is certain, that where nature has but a ſhort time to work, ſhe accelerates her operations, and acts with greater energy.

Many erroneous notions, relative to Norway, are progagated among foreigners; ſuch, among others, is that of repreſenting a Norwegian as one who had never ſeen a roſe, (which is a very common flower in Norway,) and was afraid to touch it, imagining it to be a fire.

The air in Norway, in reſpect to health and ſickneſs, particularly as to the natives, is pure and ſalubrious; it is moſtly ſo in the middle of the country, eſpecially about the mountains, where the inhabitants have hardly an idea of ſickneſs, unleſs it be hereditary, or contracted by intemperance. It is reported, that in the vale of Guildbrand, viſited by very ſalubrious gales, there are perſons of ſuch an extreme age, that from a laſſitude of longer life, they get themſelves removed elſewhere, in order to die the ſooner. That in the province of Valders, and other parts, meal may be kept many years without being worm-eaten, or any other damage; which amounts to a demonſtration of the purity, wholſomeneſs, and dryneſs of the air. But on the other hand, on the ſea-coaſt, and in Bergen, they deem the air to be leſs healthy, from the abundance of humid and ſaline vapours from the ſea, eſpecially in winter, when the miſts and rain are more frequent than clear froſt; yet with the aſthmatic, the moiſt air agrees better than a finer or a drier, which may be more piercing *.

Next

* This may poſſibly be the cauſe that a very dry air hurts conſumptive perſons, by too ſtrong a tenſion of their weak lungs, and by detaching and carrying off too much of the inward moiſture. The moſt robuſt perſons ſuffer ſometimes by the extreme ſiccity of the air.

The

Next to their plain and ſimple food, the Norwegians owe their permanent health and longevity more to their air, than to medicinal arts, very little underſtood there.

Norway, indeed, cannot be ſaid to be entirely exempt from peſtilential diſtempers: but the piercing colds of winter, and the ſtorms, ſeem to be a divine diſpoſition for purifying the air, and ſtopping the progreſs of an epidemical diſeaſe. The like good effect is produced by thunder and lightning, which diſſipate the ſulphureous and nitrous particles in the air. The general notion of ſtorms and tempeſts being more violent here than elſewhere, ariſes from the ſound which impoſes on our judgments, the noiſe and eccho of winds and thunder being much louder among the lofty mountains than in the plain country.

Bergen is liable to exceſſive rains, on account of its ſituation, from many concurring cauſes; which, on this account, is not ſo pleaſant to live in as ſeveral other places in Norway are. They compare the rain-clouds, which they are ſo ſubject to, to ſponges ſwelled with water, which on any preſſure, or when driven againſt the mountains, diſcharge their water in heavy rains, and cauſe a conſtant humidity. Therefore the women, who ſeldom have the uſe of coaches, are in all weathers obliged to wear a woollen or ſilken black veil over their heads, whilſt the men ſecure themſelves from the rain, by rain-hats, made like umbrellas.

It is to be obſerved that the moiſt and rainy weather, which prevails all over the weſtern coaſt of Norway, but chiefly about Bergen, is providentially adapted to the neceſſities of the country, and in ſeveral reſpects contributes to its welfare.

The people of the eaſtern coaſt of the Red-ſea, are obliged ſometimes to ſprinkle water up the air to moiſten it, and when they breathe, hold a wet cloth to their mouths. Hamburg. Magaz.

The deficiencies, in reſpect to vegetation, are ſupplied by the rain, which continually moiſtens the little earth on high rocky mountains. In moſt places, indeed, the rain would not be ſufficient without maſſes of ſnow, on the tops of the mountains, or, when theſe are wanting, the many pieces of ſtanding water on their ridges, which, ſometimes by ſubterraneous oozings, ſometimes by gentle ſtreams, thoroughly water the earth, and afford a conſtant refreſhment to the parched ſides of the mountains; whereas in other parts, where the rains are not ſo frequent, and the mountains not ſo ſteep, or thick-ſet as here, the water is conveyed into the fields by trenches, and thrown upon the cultivated ground with ſhovels, as is practiſed in Perſia and other hot countries. A ſecond benefit of this wet and rainy weather, eſpecially when calm withal, and chiefly in ſpring, is, that it gives fiſhermen the advantage of larger draughts; for in clear and open weather, the herrings, ſkate, &c. which are, every year, taken here and in Northland, to the amount of many tons of gold, are generally ſhy of venturing near the ſhore and into the bays; but in rainy weather the fiſhermen meet with numberleſs ſhoals of them.

Filefield uſually makes a very remarkable difference betwixt thoſe of Bergen and their neareſt eaſtern neighbours in the province of Valder; inſomuch, that when it is foul weather with them, with us it is fair; and ſo, *vice verſa*, the courſe of the air, when impelled againſt the higheſt mountains, is checked, for it ſeldom aſcends to paſs over them.

Our next tranſition is to ſnow, which, the ſame in ſubſtance as rain, differs only in texture and figure, which depend on the warmth or coldneſs of the air. Snows ſeldom lie long about Bergen; for it muſt be a very extraordinary winter, when the ſledges are uſed a fortnight ſucceſſively: whereas, in the other northern provinces, the ſnows are very thick and laſting,

and

and lie long; and on the ſummits of the mountains, or in the cavities far north, which are inacceſſible to the ſun-beams, the ſnow lies throughout the whole year; and the contraſt betwixt the lively verdure of the fields, and the gliſtering whiteneſs of the mountains, is not diſagreeable. The upper region of the air (where the atmoſphere being thinner than near the earth, the ſun-beams are leſs intercepted and reverberated) is always extremely cold, even in the warmeſt countries.

In ſome places far north, the undermoſt lays of ſnows, by long lying, turn to a thick ice, called in our language jiſbrede, which ſometimes ſlides down to a conſiderable diſtance over the lower grounds, to the no-ſmall detriment of the peaſants, by deſtroying farm-houſes, lands, and committing other damages.

However, both in Bergen and in other parts, eſpecially in the eaſtern, the ſnow is highly beneficial to the peaſants, partly in forming a paſſable road in the winter, without which all the traffick and intercourſe with the champaign country would be cut off; yet here they are obliged to put on their trouviers, (a kind of ſnow-ſhoes, broad and round, made for keeping the feet from ſinking in the ſnow) and ſometimes they muſt even be put on the horſe's hoofs. Another contrivance for travelling on the ſnow, are ſkies, or long and thin pieces of board, and ſo ſmooth, that with them the peaſants wade through the ſnow with all the expedition of ſhips under full ſail. In war-time, a corps of four or ſix hundred of theſe ſkie-men are very ſerviceable as light troops, for reconnoitring, procuring intelligence, or for any ſudden enterprize; no place being inacceſſible to them, and they being always ſure of coming upon the enemy by ſurprize. The ſnow alſo improves the fertility of the ſoil, and is ſuppoſed in ſpring to anſwer the ends of manuring: it likewiſe ſerves for a fence and ſhelter againſt ſevere colds and winds.

When the ſnow is not off the ground early enough in the ſpring, for the huſbandmen to begin the work of that ſeaſon, they ſpread over it a kind of rich black mould, which, in a few hours, entirely diſſolves it: but, on the other hand, the peaſants are often ſufferers by the ſnow, which, when it falls in great quantities, and lies long on the ground, deſtroys thouſands of young trees; likewiſe when it falls late in the ſpring, and after the trees begin to put out their leaves, which, however, happens very rarely, ſome trees, and eſpecially the alders, wither and die; a prognoſtic of which, is, the leaves turning to a browniſh hue. It has been known, and particularly in the year 1742, many people were eye-witneſſes of it, that a ſpecies of black maggots fell along with the ſnow, whereby extreme damage was done to the grains and paſture. But among the miſchiefs occaſioned by ſnow, the greateſt are the ſnee-ſkreed, or ſnee-fond; that is, when a maſs of ſnow, falling from a precipice, overwhelms both men and cattle, overſets boats in the lakes, and, which is but too often the caſe, demoliſhes cottages and houſes, inſomuch, that even whole villages are borne down. The ſnow-falls are of two kinds; the firſt, when in froſty weather the light ſnow is ſuddenly ſet in motion, and in its progreſs ſcattered over all the country, which the peaſants call meel-fond, and is not attended with ſuch damages as the other, which is known by the name of kem-fond: theſe happen when by miſts and rains in ſpring, the ſnow, which by moiſture is conſolidated, falls in a maſs, which, though ſlower in the deſcent, leaves ſtronger impreſſions on the ſides of the mountains, bearing down every thing in its way, even the ſtrongeſt new buildings.

By a ſnow-fall of the firſt kind, a whole pariſh, ſituate between Quid-perret and Hardanger, a century or two ago (for the preciſe time is not certainly known) was wholly covered, and ſo remains to this day:

day: the ſnow which had thus fallen from the adjacent mountains, not diſſolving the year after, was further gradually increaſed, and hardened by lying. The ſituation being high, and hemmed in among the mountains, many lives were loſt in this diſaſter, of which no memorial would remain, were not the truth of this ſtory, which was at firſt much doubted, ſtill confirmed by ſeveral utenſils, as ſciſſars, knives, baſons, &c. brought to light by a rivulet which runs under the ſnow: an inconteſtible evidence that this ſpot was formerly clear of ſnow, and inhabited. Such diſaſters are but ſeldom heard of; and the perpetual ſnows which always cover the ſummits of the higheſt mountains, may, notwithſtanding, be juſtly ſaid to be rather neceſſary and advantageous, than abſolutely detrimental: the ſnow, by age, becomes ſo firm and indurated, that a horſe's ſhoe makes no impreſſion in it; and as it yields very gradually to the ſun, it is thus ſparingly diſpenſed for the daily benefit of the inhabitants beneath; except in a damp ſoutherly wind, which penetrating the ſnow, the mountains pour down whole torrents. Theſe accumulated ſnows thus become conſtant ſprings for promoting vegetation in the champaign grounds; and and when theſe ſprings are too early exhauſted, the graſs and corn inevitably ſuffer, and are ſometimes withered for want of moiſture. Another inconvenience of theſe currents, and likewiſe of their impetuous deſcent, is, that they drive great numbers of little mills, every farm-houſe * having its own mill. A third advantage of them redounds to the oxen, cows, ſheep, and goats, which in ſummer are turned out

* In the eaſtern provinces, which are leſs mountainous, the people not only labour under a great ſcarcity of water, but in ſeveral parts the mills are at a great diſtance; but this may be ſoon remedied, if hanging-wheels were uſed inſtead of fixed ones: there are but few places where a ſufficient water might not be found for thoſe, which require ſo much leſs than the others now in uſe.

upon the mountains for paſture, where they are ſo extremely tormented with the heat, with gnats and muſchetos, that they run about regardleſs of danger, and in this frenzy many have loſt their lives, falling down the precipices: this lays the peaſants under a neceſſity, where ſnow is near, of building ſheltering-places for the cattle; but if any ſnow-hill be in ſight, the cattle move towards it, knowing they ſhall there be relieved by the coolneſs which it communicates to the air. A further remarkable inſtance of divine goodneſs in this caſe is, that juſt as far as the ſnow melts and runs from the mountains, the very beſt graſs is obſerved to grow, and in the greateſt plenty: its warm covering, ſo far from being an obſtruction, both forwarding and improving it.

As the mountains in Norway in general conſiſt of rocks, intermixed with quarries of marble, free-ſtone, ſand-ſtone, ſlate, mill-ſtone, &c. which, towards the ſea, are almoſt ſtripped of earth by the force of the winds, and in the creeks, and farther in the country, are covered indeed with earth, but not more than a few yards deep, and very often leſs, one would be apt to think, that below this ſlender covering the whole kingdom of Norway is but one ſolid ſtone, only of a different nature, figure, and height. But the error of ſuch a concluſion is evident, not only from the many deep creeks running up the country, but freſh-water lakes, ſwamps, and fens, in ſome of which, though ſounded with lines of ſeveral hundred fathoms, no bottom has been ever found. However mountainous and craggy Norway in general is thought to be, yet it affords many champaign well-cultivated tracts, of ſix, eight, or ten leagues and more in extent.

The ſoils, as in other countries, are very different, conſiſting of black mould, ſand, loam, chalk, gravel, turf, mud, &c. The ſand of Norway, though *the fineſt, is* ſeldom of the white kind, but uſually brown.

brown or greyiſh: that on the ſea-ſhore is of the coarſeſt, being rather particles of ſtone, as indeed are all grains of ſand: ſome parts afford a kind of ſhining ſand, as if mixed with antimony, or with iron or tin-duſt, is moſtly uſed for writing, and as ſuch exported.

Clay, both yellow and blue, is to be found in the creeks, but in greater plenty every where up the country, where they have lately begun to uſe it for earthen-ware: other finer and richer clays, of a dark brown and yellow colour, and uſed by painters, are alſo met with in ſeveral places. At Ringerige is a kind of black clay, not inferior in its fineneſs to *terra ſigillata*, and by the peaſants uſed as blacking.

The ſwamps and marſhes lie on the ridges of the mountains, and in the vallies at the feet of the ſteepeſt precipices, which in many places render the roads very unſafe, being paſſable only in the drieſt months, and ſometimes not even then, unleſs a kind of cauſeway is formed over them at the public charge, with thouſands of logs and large pieces laid acroſs the marſh, that ſoon rot. In theſe places the ground is ſoft as dough, yielding and moving under the foot, there being probably beneath theſe marſhes an abyſs of ſtanding water thus weakly vaulted over. Near Leſſoe, in the dioceſe of Chriſtianſand, a timber cauſeway is carried on for near a mile; and if a horſe, or a much leſs animal, happens to make the leaſt wrong ſtep, he ſinks beyond recovery.

The greateſt part of Norway is covered with mountains and rocks, of which there are two ſorts: firſt, Thoſe extending themſelves through the whole length of the country: ſecondly, Thoſe ſcattered about or ſurrounded with a level country, many of which may be conſidered as branches or excreſcences ſpringing from the roots of the former, which are ſuch as are properly called *juga montium concatenata*, a long continued chain of mountains, whoſe direction near

Bergen.

Bergen is not tranſverſal, but from the ſouth towards the north pole, contrary to the other European chains of mountains, which run eaſt and weſt. But the American Cordilleros, according to M. Buffon, are in the ſame direction as theſe northern are. At the extremity of Finmark begins that ridge of high and rocky mountains, called Koele, inhabited by the wandering Finlappers, who alternately dwell on the eaſt and weſt ſide: it breaks in many places into large vallies, and therefore is not a ſtrictly-continued chain; and in its courſe goes by ſeveral names, according to the ſeveral places contiguous to it, as it were into two arms: the firſt of which, in its progreſſion, ſerves almoſt for a boundary between Norway and Sweden. The height and breadth of this extenſive chain are both very different. Its higheſt perpendicular height is not eaſily determinable, without calculating it by the barometer. A proof, among others, of its great elevation above the horizon of the champaign country, is the changes from heat to cold; which, within a few hours, become ſo ſenſible, that the traveller may very well ſuppoſe himſelf ſuddenly tranſported from a hot ſummer to a piercing winter. Another proof of its great height, is the extenſive proſpect from it, in clear weather, of thirty Daniſh or German miles. What ſtill farther proves its prodigious height, is, that it cauſes a very ſenſible difference in the wind and weather, betwixt the north and the ſouth ſide.

The higheſt parts of the whole chain of mountains, are every where ſo ſmooth and level, that if they were not conſtantly covered with ſnow, carriages might travel much eaſier than in the lower parts; eſpecially on the mountain near Hardanger, over which lies the road to Konſberg; along which, large herds of cattle are driven, and great quantities of goods carried. But the utmoſt caution is neceſſary here, on account of the large chaſms

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in the ſnow, which hath lain there before the memory of man, and is conſolidated. Theſe chaſms, in winter, are covered with looſe ſnow, and many perſons, not being aware of them, have irrecoverably ſunk into an abyſs; from whence the only chance of an eſcape is through holes made by the birds for their retreat. Over Filefield, which is the road for the poſt and the King's carriages, the way is marked all along with poſts at two or three hundred paces diſtance, that in ſnowy or dark weather the traveller may not loſe himſelf in deſart wilds, where no living creature is to be met with, except, here and there, a few rein deer; and which cannot be conſtantly inhabited, unleſs by Finlappers.

In ſome meaſure to relieve and refreſh the traveller, two mountain-ſtoves, or reſting-houſes, are maintained on Filefield at the public charge; and three on Dofrefield, and furniſhed with fire, light, and kitchen utenſils.

The other claſs of mountains, as already hinted, ſtand ſingle, and are diſperſed over the country, are generally long in their form, and, like the others, ſtretch away from north to ſouth; but with fruitful vales betwixt them, watered with convenient rivers, by which the floats of timber are conveyed to the ſea-ſide for exportation. The inhabitants find theſe little mountains much more convenient for dwelling, they being exceedingly fruitful, the ſides of them covered with fields, and woods, while their ſummits afford plenty of paſture for the cattle and wild beaſts; beſides which, their bowels are treaſures of ſilver, copper, iron, and other metals, which in Norway, as well as in Sweden, are lodged in the ſmaller, and not in thoſe vaſt mountains. The perpendicular height of the talleſt of theſe mountains, according to appearance, and the report of the people living near them, may be computed at betwixt nine and twelve hundred yards.

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The inhabitants of a mountainous country, may, in general, be ſaid to labour under more inconveniencies than others; as the country, in the firſt place, is leſs fruitful; the arable ground being but little in compariſon with the waſtes and deſarts. The diſproportion in many provinces, eſpecially thoſe which are entirely over-run with mountains, betwixt their produce and inhabitants, is very great, they being under the neceſſity of procuring one half of their ſuſtenance out of the ſea. In the next place, the villages cannot be ſo large, compact, and convenient as in other parts; but the houſes lie ſcattered among the vallies, generally at half or a quarter of a league diſtance; although, up the country, the farm-houſes are both larger, and ſtand thicker than in the vallies of Bergen, where they are the ſmaller from the vaſt extent of the mountains. In ſome places, as in the creeks of Ulland and Nordall, the peaſants houſes ſtand ſo high, and on the edge of ſuch a ſteep precipice, that ladders are fixed to climb up to them; ſo that when a prieſt is ſent for, who is unpractiſed in the road, he riſks his life, and chiefly in the winter when it is ſlippery. In ſuch places, a corpſe muſt be let down with ropes, or be brought on mens' backs, before it is laid in the coffin. The mail likewiſe, in winter, muſt, at ſome diſtance from Bergen, be drawn up over the ſteepeſt mountains. Under this head of inconveniences, we muſt alſo reckon the very difficult roads, extremely ſo to the day-labourers, but particularly to travellers, who cannot without terror paſs the ſeveral places, even in the King's roads, over the ſides of ſteep and craggy mountains, and on ways which are either ſhored up, or ſuſpended by iron-bolts faſtened in the mountains, and though not above the breadth of a foot-path, without any rails on the ſide, as indeed it is impoſſible to fix *any; not to* mention the ſudden riſing of the rivers,

which

which they muſt either wade through, or croſs over on ruinous bridges *. In the dioceſe of Bergen, the bridges are not built of any extraordinary ſtrength, being uſed only by foot-paſſengers or horſemen, for there is no road for carts; and many peaſants here, who have not ſo much as ſeen a cart, when they come to Bergen, look with amazement at it as a curious machine. A fourth evil reſulting from the mountains, and eſpecially in this province, is the ſhelter their cavities and clefts afford to wild beaſts of prey, which renders it difficult to extirpate them. It is not eaſy to deſcribe what havock lynxes, foxes, bears, and eſpecially wolves make among the cattle, the goats, hares, and other uſeful animals. Another very pernicious evil is, that the cattle, goats, &c. belonging to the peaſants, often fall down the precipices, and are deſtroyed: ſometimes they make a falſe ſtep into a projection called a Mountain-hammer, where they can neither aſcend or deſcend. On this occaſion a peaſant cheerfully ventures his life for a ſheep or a goat; and deſcending from the top of a mountain, by a rope of ſome hundred fathoms,

* In the narrow paſs of Narrowe, leading to Waas, is a very remarkable piece of antiquity, being a way ſuſpended on iron bolts, which the famous King Suerre, in the year 1200, or above ſix hundred years ago, cauſed to be faſtened in the rocks, to make a paſſage for his army, doubtleſs for his cavalry, which could not poſſibly have paſſed it, had they not been Norway horſes; theſe being accuſtomed to climb the rocks as nimbly as goats. The moſt dangerous, though not the moſt difficult road met with in Norway, is that betwixt Skogſtadt and Vang in Volders. Along the freſh-water lake called Little Miſa, the road on the ſide of the ſteep and high mountain, is in ſome places as narrow and confined as the narroweſt paths; and if two travellers meeting in the night, do not ſee each other ſoon enough to ſtop where the road will ſuffer them to paſs, and chance to meet in the narroweſt parts, they muſt ſtop ſhort, without being able to paſs by one another, or to find a turning for their horſes, or even to alight. The only reſource in this difficulty, is, that one of them muſt endeavour to climb to ſome corner of this ſteep mountain, or to be drawn up by a rope, if help be at hand, and then to throw his horſe down headlong into the lake, in order to make room for the other traveller to paſs.

he ſlings his body on a croſs-ſtick, till he can ſet his foot on the place where his goat is; then he faſtens it to the rope, to be drawn up along with himſelf. But the moſt amazing circumſtance is, that he runs this riſk with the help only of one ſingle perſon, who holds the end of the rope, or faſtens it to a ſtone, if there be one at hand. There are inſtances of the aſſiſtant himſelf having been dragged down, and ſacrificing his life in fidelity to his friend, on which occaſion both have periſhed *. The ſixth, and not the leaſt danger, to which the inhabitants of this and ſome other provinces, though ſeldom in Oſterland, are expoſed, is, that ſometimes by a ſudden diſruption of a rock, great damages are done to the cattle, fields, and woods; and ſometimes houſes and families are involved in the deſtruction.

The firſt benefit of mountains is, that they collect the clouds, and diſſolve them in rains, as has been already ſhewn; likewiſe the maſſes of ſnow, reſervoirs, and ſprings in the mountains, ſend down large and ſmall currents of water, whereby the fields, woods, and cattle are refreſhed, and even the ſubterraneous veins of water and ſprings, which do not immediately iſſue from without the mountains, owe their origin to them; eſpecially where the veins are large and rapid, as has ſufficiently been made out by Ray, Scheuchzer, Wolff, and other naturaliſts. I would only remark here, that ſeveral level heaths remain barren and uncultivated, merely becauſe, after digging deep for ſprings, men can ſcarce procure water for their own uſe, and have no fodder for

* Of theſe melancholy and not unfrequent accidents, of a man or a beaſt falling ſome hundred fathoms from the precipices, it is obſerved that the air preſſes with ſuch force againſt the bodies thus falling, that they are not only ſuffocated, and deprived of life long before they reach the ground, but their bellies burſt, and their intrails immediately guſh out; which is plainly the caſe when they happen to fall into a creek, or any other water; for all the limbs remain whole, *but the belly is burſt.*

their

their cattle at all. I am alſo of opinion that mountain-water is more fertilizing than common rain-water; and whether from ſaltpetre effluvia, or ſome other cauſe, has in it a particular vegetative power, as is manifeſt not only from the quickneſs of the growth, and vigour of all kinds of young trees, particularly pines, aſhes, oaks, and other trees, on the ſides of mountains, where is very little earth, and ſometimes even in horrid clefts, where they are known to thrive better than when planted in other parts; but the ſame is likewiſe viſible in the cultivated parts, which, indeed, are ſmall, but in ſuch fecundity, as both in ſtraw and grain, greatly to ſurpaſs the champaign country, the marſhy lands and the like excepted. It is alſo well known, that the ſurface of the hard mountains, though unfit for the plough, affords large and excellent paſtures; and the property of the northern peaſants in oxen, cows, ſheep, and goats, would be reduced very low, were it not for their ſpacious range on the ſides of the mountains: not to mention that wild-fowl, and beaſts, do, as well as the ſeveral hurtful animals, find more refuge and food in the mountains than in the level country. Norway, 'till a century and a half ago, appears from all accounts to have wrought but few mines; conſequently the country contained treaſure out of knowledge. Since that time, matters are ſo improved by the aſſiſtance of German miners, that the ſilver, copper, and iron mines have produced to the amount of ſeveral millions.

Concerning the waters of Norway, the principal object to us, is a part of the North, or large Atlantic ſea, which follows its coaſts for three hundred leagues, and by many narrow channels form a multitude of ſmall and large iſlands, ſome of them being from three- to ſix or nine leagues in length, and not barren; but moſt of them are ſo ſmall, that they are inhabited only by ſome fiſhermen and pilots, who

who keep a few herds of cattle, which they ſend o for paſture to the neareſt little iſlands, rocks ar ſhores. By ſuch a rampart, which poſſibly m conſiſt of a million or more of ſtone column founded in the bottom of the ſea, the capitals where ſcarce riſe higher than ſome fathoms above t waves, almoſt the whole weſtern coaſt of Norway defended as well againſt enemies as the ſea. Th coaſt, indeed, affords ſo many, and ſuch good ha bours, as few other maritime countries can boaſt o yet a large ſhip, which cannot make uſe of oar will be in danger of not reaching the harbour, b fore the wind and the current, which are very vi lent in the Straits, daſh it againſt the ſteep rocks i the neighbourhood; to prevent which, ſeveral hun dreds of large iron rings have, by the order of t government, been fixed in the rocks more than tw fathoms above water, as moorings to the ſhip when there is not room for anchorage; the coaſte are protected by the rocks from the violence of t waves, which break againſt them.

The ſea-waters of Norway, which are muc ſalter than thoſe of the Baltic, have not the ſaltne of that in warmer countries, eſpecially under the to rid zone.

The oil, or fatneſs, or unctuouſneſs of the Nort ſea, is a remarkable property of it, eſpecially as th innumerable ſhoals of large and ſmall fiſh, whic are both engendered and nouriſhed there, ſerve bot for food and for the benefit of light, to almoſt a countries in Europe; for it is not merely by de vouring one another that the fiſhes fatten, but b the aliment they receive from an infinite number o worms and other inſects.

This unctuouſneſs of the ſea has, probably, ſom connection with its effulgence and ſcintillations, whe the water being ſtirred by rowing, or otherwiſe, ap-

pear

pears all on fire, which, by our mariners, is called a Moor-Ild.

The freſh ſprings, rivers and lakes here in Norway, as in other places, are not equally light, pure, and wholeſome; their qualities depending on their bottom, generally bringing with them particles of what they carried off by the way. Our ſprings are not much to be boaſted of; for their bottoms ſhew them to have ſo much clay, chalk, or ochre in them, that a drop on a plate leaves a white, brown, or yellow ſpot. However, the freſh water in Norway, in general, may be conſidered as good and ſalubrious; and which, with other articles, contribute greatly to the vigour and remarkable longevity of the inhabitants. The metal, of which there is the moſt abundance there, is iron, and which, conſequently, moſt of all, tinges the freſh waters; for the aqueous particles being analyſed, there remains a ferruginous matter.

The rivers of Norway, far from the ſea, are not navigable for veſſels of conſiderable burden: for though, in many places, there be a ſufficient depth of water, yet the water-falls, cauſed by the intervening rocks and clifts, are unſurmountable obſtacles, the ſtream precipitating itſelf from a height of ſix, eight, or ten fathoms, where only maſts and ſuch timber can be ſtoated down, and many of theſe are deſtroyed; yet the greateſt part get ſafely through, and, being marked by their owners, are ſecured at the lentzes. Theſe are large booms, fortified with iron bolts, and laid acroſs ſeveral parts of the river, for ſtopping the timber. As theſe and other rivers perform the capital ſervice of conveying from the mountains and foreſts thoſe maſts and timbers, which, without ſuch conveyance, would be abſolutely uſeleſs with reſpect to commerce: ſo, by their ſeveral water-falls, they are of a further utility, in driving

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ſeveral hundred ſaw-mills, where, with little labour, planks and boards are ſawed to all dimenſions.

In the dioceſe of Bergen, where carriages can be very little uſed, it is not thought worth while to build ſtrong and laſting bridges. In many places, the manner of their conſtruction is thus: where the narrowneſs and rapidity of the current will not admit of ſinking any ſtone caſes, thick maſts are laid on each ſide of the ſhore, with the thickeſt end faſtened to the rocks of the mountains: one maſt being thus laid in the water, another is placed upon it, reaching a fathom beyond it; and then a third or fourth, in the like progreſſion, to the middle of the ſtream, where it is joined with another connection of maſts from the oppoſite ſide, and this without any other cement than contact; ſo that, in the paſſage over it, eſpecially in the middle, the bridge appears to ſwing, which, to thoſe who are not uſed to it, looks ſo dangerous, that they alight from their horſes, till they imagine themſelves out of danger.

The beſt paſſage in winter is by the rivers, eſpecially up the country. As they are every where deeply frozen, the peaſants find a very great conveniency in them for conveying their goods to the towns in their ſledges, carriages being ſcarce practicable over the heights of the mountains.

Having ſpecified the diverſities of the ſoil and air in Norway, which poſſibly are greater than in any other country, it will appear that vegetable products, as dependent thereon, vary in like manner. Norway is almoſt every where ſo unfit for agriculture, though not for paſture, that upon a meaſurement of the plowed lands, the proportions, in reſpect to the meadows and woods, the waſtes and barren mountains, would not be greater than as one to eighty; and if the peaſants of Norway were not conſiderably aſſiſted by the great fiſheries on the ſea-coaſts, and the timber and charcoal-trade for the mines, the graziery,

and

and liberty they have of killing game, the country could not be ſuppoſed to furniſh ſubſiſtance for above half of the inhabitants; for as theſe viſibly encreaſe, and ſpread themſelves year after year, ſo ſeveral tracts of uncultivated land have been broke up, and tilled; and ſeveral woods likewiſe have been burned and turned to huſbandry; yet, with all theſe expedients, there would ſtill be a ſcarcity in theſe places, where the nature of the earth and the rocks are not capable of any cultivation.

If the ſituation of a ſwampy field be ſuch, that the cold moiſture cannot be carried off by veiters or trenches, the natural reſource is the warm and dry dung of horſes and ſwine. Where the ſoil is dry and deep enough, ſheeps' dung is the manure for barley, as cow or ox-dung is for oats; but if very hungry, ſandy, or hilly, for ſuch there is no better manure than the earth of mole-hills in the ſwampy countries, which at harveſt is collected for this purpoſe. By this diſtribution of every kind of dung and manure, varied according to the ſoil, all the plowed lands may in time be improved doubly, and be brought nearly to an equal goodneſs.

All kinds of grain are ſown in Norway, though not every where to equal advantage. Both the north and ſouth have hop-gardens. Flax and hemp likewiſe grow here, but in a very ſmall proportion for the demand of them.

Norway is abundantly furniſhed with ſuch plants and herbs as the diſeaſes of the inhabitants moſt require. The diſtempers, eſpecially towards the ſea-coaſt, being ſcorbutic, there accordingly grows not only angelica, roſe-wort, and gentian, preferable to any in Europe, but likewiſe ſeveral other kinds of excellent creſſes, trefoils, ſorrels, and ſcurvy-graſs.

Apples and pears of ſeveral kinds are found all over the country, and the peaſants now begin to apply themſelves to the cultivation of them with more

skill

ſkill and diligence; but the greateſt part of them are ſummer-fruit, which ripen early. Marble, which in moſt countries is ſo ſcarce and coſtly, is found here in ſeveral places. There are no flint-ſtones in Norway; ſo that they get thoſe uſed in their fire-arms from Germany or Denmark. Their mountains are the proper native place of the cryſtals, which ſometimes are ſuſpended from them, and glitter in the ſun, to the aſtoniſhment of foreigners: they are liable to be waſhed into the rivers, and through them into the lakes; and this is the only way one can account for their being found in them.

Norway contains a vaſt treaſure of metals and minerals, and two conſiderable ſilver mines. Old-God's-Bleſſing is the richeſt mine, and one of the moſt ancient; and which, in a week, has ſometimes yielded ſome hundreds of pounds of rich ore: it amazes all ſpectators with its tremendous depth, being one hundred and eighty perpendicular fathoms. Its circumference at the bottom forms a clear of ſome hundred fathoms. The ſight of ſo many piles of wood burning on every ſide, thirty or forty in number, in this gloomy cavern, and conſtantly ſupplied, in order to ſoften the ſtone in purſuing the mine, appears, according to vulgar notions, a picture of hell; and the crowd of miners, hurrying about in dreſſes ſuited to their ſeveral functions, may readily be looked upon as ſo many devils, eſpecially when for ſignal that a mine is going to be ſprung up in this or that courſe, they bellow out, "Berg-livet! Berg-livet!" "Take care of your lives."

The annual produce of theſe works amounts to a ton of gold and a half, and ſometimes three quarters. Norway is alſo well provided with copper-mines, of which, unwrought, many exportations are made every year. Iron is found in plenty all over the country, but eſpecially at Chriſtianſand. Sulphur is found plentifully in their mines, but is judged not worth the

the trouble of melting or depurating. They have no viſible ſalt-mines; they might have vitriol in great plenty, if the preparation could turn to any good account. Plenty of allum and very good ochre is produced in ſeveral places.

PART II.

FROM having treated of inanimate creatures, in the preceding part, the natural tranſition now is, to thoſe endowed with animal life, up to its climax man. Let the firſt claſs be quadrupedes, among whom, for his ſervices to mankind, the horſe claims the preference.

The horſes in Norway (which are moſtly ſtone ones) are remarkable for their neat, elegant make and ſtrength, are commonly ſmall, but well proportioned, plump and round. Their colour is generally a deep bay, with black manes and tails, and a black, brown, grey, or lightiſh mouſe-colour ſtreak along the back: black is rarely ſeen, ſcarce one in fifty. They are better for riding than drawing; they have an eaſy walk, and commonly go prancing along; are always full of mettle, but very ſure-footed, which is a great happineſs in bad roads. When they go up or come down a ſteep cliff on ſtones like ſteps, they firſt tread gently with one foot, to try if the ſtone they touch be faſt; and in this they muſt be left to their own management, or the beſt riders will run the riſk of their necks: when they are to deſcend a very ſteep and ſlippery place, they, in a ſurpriſing manner, draw their hind-legs together under them, and ſlide gently down. They are amazingly intrepid: when they fight with the wolves and bears, which they are often expoſed to, eſpecially with the latter, on perceiving any of them to approach, the horſe, if a mare or gelding be with him, puts the weaker behind him, and aſſails his antagoniſt

tagoniſt with his fore-legs, which he uſes like drum-ſticks to ſtrike withal; and commonly conquers. Sometimes indeed the bear (who has double the other's ſtrength) gets the advantage, particularly if the horſe happen to turn about, in order to kick with his hind legs, by which he is ruined; for the bear inſtantly leaps upon him, and fixes himſelf on his back; in which unhappy caſe, the horſe gallops off with his angry rider, till, by loſs of blood, he falls and expires.

The oxen and cows in Norway are generally of a yellow colour as the horſes, are ſmall, and their littleneſs has been aſcribed to the extreme cold and denſe air in thoſe countries towards the north-pole; which, although it does not hinder the fiſh from growing to the largeſt ſize, may hinder the parts of land-animals from dilating themſelves, as in more temperate and lighter air; wherefore the largeſt beaſts, as elephants, dromedaries, and camels, are in the hotteſt countries. Notwithſtanding this ſpecious argument, the elk and ſtag are as large in Norway as any where elſe; nor do the people ſeem contracted by the coldneſs of their climate. The men of Norway are inferior to none for bodily growth, and ſtrength of limbs. It is however true, that in the coldeſt climates, the beaſts are commonly more replete with blood, and the fat grows on the outer parts, that is, between the fleſh and the ſkin, for their greater warmth.

The cows in Norway have but very little tallow, and the moſt of that which is tranſported is goat's. The meat, after good grazing towards the winter, is ſufficiently fat, and very tender and delicate; fine grained, juicy and well-taſted. As for milk and butter, the cows afford but little, according to their ſize, about a gallon of milk a day at moſt, but this very good, yet that depends upon their graſing; and, as I have already taken notice, we have as good but-

er as any where, excepting in Marſh Landeme. The peaſant prepares for himſelf milk, butter, and cheeſe, in different quantities, according to his palate and fancy; and particularly in ſummer, his common drink is whey. As the cows give but little, they keep ſo many the more, and turn them out in the ſummer ſeveral miles diſtant, to places called Seeters, on the high rocks, where they keep a woman-ſervant in a hut to watch them. In the ſpring, when they are firſt turned out, they make a large fire, which they call Boe-lid, in the fields, to which the cattle from their farm-yard, all run, particularly in the cold nights, and lay themſelves round about it; this uſes them to keep together, and to look for the houſe when they are to be milked. The ſmall ſpot of ground that theſe peaſants have, is not ſufficient for winter-provender for their ſtock of cattle; to ſupply which, in ſummer, they cut off for them the boughs of ſeveral trees, by cart-loads, and dry them, tied up in bundles; and, in the ſpring, they throw them the leaves and young branches, ſprouts, and boughs.

In Northland manor, and ſome towns in Bergen, the Stranſiedere, which are thoſe ſettled on the coaſt, who have large fiſheries, for want of other food or provender, mix cods heads, and other fiſhes bones together, which the cows eat with a good appetite; but the milk is not good, for it has a very fiſhy ſmell. It is not only fiſh-bones the cows here eat, but, likewiſe, the bones of their own ſpecies, which they ſwallow greedily, and gnaw them with their teeth as the dogs would.

The beſt goats are in Nordland and in Sundmoar: they run wild in many places, winter and ſummer, in the fields, till they are ten or twelve years old; and when the peaſant, their owner, is to catch them, he muſt either do it by ſome ſnare, or ſhoot them. They are ſo bold, that if a wolf comes towards

them alone, they will not go out of his way; and if they have dogs with them, they will reſiſt a whole herd. They frequently attack ſerpents, and when they are bit by them, their owner warms their own milk and waſhes the ſore with it: they commonly revenge themſelves ſeverely upon the ſerpent that bites them; for they eat him up, though they plague themſelves a great while before they can get him down. After this they don't find themſelves well for ſeveral days; but they never die in conſequence.

The peaſants dry the goat's blood, and diſſolve it by boiling it in oil; which they hold to be a good remedy for the lumbago.

The hogs in Norway are of the long and ſhort-bodied kind; but few in number, on account of the difficulty to find food for them; therefore a great deal of bacon is imported from Denmark.

The dogs of Norway, as in other places, are both large and ſmall; and like them too trained up to different uſes.

In Nordland they chiefly train up their dogs to catch birds, and to go where a man would not be able to follow them, on the ſteep ſlopes on the ſides of the fields *. They are likewiſe uſed to watch, in the night, the Bergen merchants compting and ware-houſes, as they do in Dantſick, and Saint Malo's. The large and ſurly kind are kept for this purpoſe: in the day-time they are peaceable enough; but when on the watch, as furious as wolves. We

* At Roſt Vorven, and other places in Norland, where they have very advantageous birding, each farmer keeps twelve, fourteen, or ſixteen ſuch bird-dogs; they are ſmall, long, and lank, with ſhort legs. This kind of hunting is ſometimes the beſt part of the maintenance of many of theſe farmers; and they quarrel very often about the number of their dogs.

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have cats both tame and wild; the latter are very large, and their ſkins bear a good price: they live by catching birds upon the trees: they ſteal upon them, and then ſeize them by a ſudden leap.

Norway abounds with wild beaſts, as well the uſeful as the hurtful to mankind. The common deer are grown ſcarce by the frequent havock committed on them by the wolves in ſeveral diſtricts. Sometimes it happens that the harts and hinds, in little herds, ſwim over pretty broad rivers between the continent and the iſlands; to accompliſh which, they methodically aſſiſt one another, by reſting their heads on each other's rumps; and when the foremoſt is tired he retreats to the laſt, leaving the next to him foremoſt. There is plenty of hares, which are very cheap in winter: they are ſmall, change colour in the cold ſeaſon, from brown or grey to ſnow-white. Rabbits, which are of the hare kind, are found but in very few places, and thoſe are grey and white.

The make of the elk-deer is between the horſe and ſtag, and from thence it has been called *Equi Cervus*. They are very long-legged, inſomuch that a man may ſtand upright under their belly; they are of an aſh-colour, and on their head they have horns like the deer, but not ſo long and round; but flat and broad, with ſmall points about the edge. It is a harmleſs, innocent creature, and keeps near the houſes in winter. The fleſh taſtes pretty much like veniſon, and the hide ſells for a good price: it is counted the fineſt and ſtrongeſt leather for ſoldiers habits, in the place of buff; but the price is leſs, ſince horſe and oxen hides are dreſſed the ſame way for buff-leather. The hoof of this creature is cloven, as the cows are; and there are often rings made of it, which are good for the cramp, and for epileptic diſorders. This is on the principle of *curatio per contrarium*; for this beaſt is

often troubled with that diſorder, and cures itſelf, they ſay, by ſtretching his right hind-foot to his ear, and ſcratching himſelf with it. Their principal food is elm and aſp-leaves, as long as they can be had.

The rein-deer is a ſpecies of the ſtag that properly belongs to thoſe northern countries, and do not thrive or generate any where elſe, as no nouriſhment can be found that will keep them alive; added to the want of their natural air, ſuch as they find on the hills and mountains of the north. The ſhape or make of the rein-deer reſembles the hart, and their horns are covered with a furr, and the branches are turned forwards as well as backwards. In Bergen, as well as in other places, they run wild about the country, and are ſhot and ſold like other game: their fleſh is very delicate, ſomething drier than the hart; and their hide, which is very ſoft, is much ſought for by the curriers, tanners, and leather-dreſſers. They run at Hardankerſke and Sneefield in flocks of one, two, or three hundred together; ſo that with one ſhot you may kill three or four.

If they are ſhot in the middle of the flock, the dead will then be trod to pieces, and be of no benefit; for which reaſon they generally watch the ſtragglers, and thoſe that run at the ſides. In Finmark, particularly in that long country, called Kolen, which borders upon Sweden, the rein-deer abound moſt, not only wild, but alſo tame; and they are the Finlappernes, or Finlaplanders greateſt, and almoſt only riches; for they live upon their meat, milk, and cheeſe; they make cloathing, tents, and bed-coverings of their ſkins; of their tendons they make their ſewing-thread. Many a man has from ſix or eight hundred to a thouſand of thoſe creatures, which never come under cover: they follow the Finlap wherever he ſtrolls; and when they

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are put to a ſledge, tranſport his goods from one dwelling to another. They provide for themſelves, and live chiefly upon the leaves and buds of trees, on birch catkins, and upon moſs, particularly a white dry moſs, called the Rein-deer-moſs, which in winter they ſcrape for under the ſnow, and at laſt get it. They are a neat, clean, briſk, entertaining creatures, and ſupport themſelves on very little nouriſhment. Dogs, brought up for the purpoſe, are their leaders, protectors, and even are as maſters to correct them. The wolf is their greateſt enemy; yet they will defend themſelves, in ſome meaſure, with their horns, as long as they keep together.

Next in order to the uſeful ſucceeds the noxious creatures. Bears are met with all over Norway, more numerous in ſome parts than in others; there are two ſpecies of them, a large and leſs ſize; both are fierce, ravenous, ſtrong, and cunning: their colour is either dark, or a light brown, ſometimes ſilver-grey at the ends, which is the moſt beautiful. Their head ſomewhat reſembles a hog's, and they have pretty near ſuch a ſnout: they have ſmall eyes, ſhort ears, a wide ſwallow, and ſtrong loins; but their greateſt ſtrength is in their fore-legs and paws.

The bear is ſaid to carry her young but a month; and, therefore, like the dog-kind, which always haſtes for the birth, brings forth two or three in number, blind, and naked, and ſmall as mice, each in form like a mere lump; which the mother continually licks, till it expands, or unfolds itſelf, according to the proverb, *lambendo, ſicut urſa catulos.* Then, they ſay, ſhe holds them in her paws to her breaſt, to warm them, according to the manner of birds, which Ol. Magnus has alſo obſerved; but ſome are of opinion it is to give them ſuck, as their paps ſtand pretty high on the fore-part of their body. While thoſe young ones are bringing up, it is moſt dangerous to meet the old ones; for then they

will attack, whilſt, at other times, they are only upon the defenſive againſt mankind; excepting it be a pregnant woman, whoſe condition they know, by ſcent, or by inſtinct, and with all their might will ſtrive to get the fœtus, which is a delicious morſel to them, if it happens to be a male.

It has never been obſerved that a bear hurts a child. His food in neceſſity is roots, graſs, and greens, particularly the angelica, or quanne, which grows here, and the mattebær, tuttebær, brambær, and ronnebær, when he can lay hold, or reach them on the extremity of the buſh; and though he ſometimes tumbles down in the attempt, he breaks off the branches. However, what ſuits his palate beſt is animal food; the fleſh of ſheep, goats, cows, and horſes; which laſt, as I have before obſerved, often conquer him.

His attack is made with his fore-paws: he uſes not his mouth, till he is maſter of the creature: then he ſucks the blood, and afterwards drags the carcaſe to his den: if the road to this be up hill, or through buſhes, that he cannot drag the prey eaſily along, he then has been ſeen to take the carcaſe in his fore-paws, walking on his hind-legs only. He has been ſeen alſo going upright, on plain ground, hugging the whole body of a large animal; from which, among other things, you may judge of his great ſtrength. He does not lay hold of any ſtrange dead carcaſe, like the wolf, but chuſes to be butcher to himſelf, where he is to eat. He does not bite and tear like the wolf, and is not near ſo much dreaded. He maſters the wolf, and corrects him; and therefore that creatures does not like to ſtay in his neighbourhood.

Many inſtances are told of the bear's prudence and diſcretion; the following appears to me to be the moſt ſtriking: out of the whole flock of cows, *he picks* out that which has the bell round her neck, which,

which, by running, generally gives the ſignal of danger. At this bell he is mightily offended: he tears it off, and and if it is not a caſt-bell, but a hammered one, he will ſtrike it ſo flat with his paw, that it ſhall never ſpeak, or vex him again. He will fire off a gun, when he has taken it from the huntſman; and ſhews a great deal of cunning in ſaving his life, when ſet upon by two or three huntſmen together. When the firſt has miſſed his aim, or ſlightly wounded him, he then lays hold of the unarmed man, and hugs him, retreating on his hind-legs as far as he can; knowing very well the others will not fire at him, for fear of ſhooting their companion: he then throws himſelf down a bank, a hill, or into a ditch, and there leaves the man dead or alive; ſometimes it kills both. If he finds himſelf mortally wounded, then he endeavours to rob the huntſman of his hide, which he knows he comes for, and therefore lays hold of a very large ſtone; and if there be a deep water near him, he plunges himſelf into it.

Bears are likewiſe good ſwimmers; they often go into the rivers and catch fiſh; their broad paws are very fit to row with, but their clumſy body grows tired of ſwimming croſs a water of a league; and if he ſees a boat by the way, he will go after it, if it be only to reſt himſelf: if he gets in, he will ſit in the ſtern quiet and peaceable; the maſter, however, does not care to let him in, if he can ply his oars faſt enough; but if he has an ax in the boat, the bear's paws are ſure to ſmart, or pay for it, as ſoon as he touches the veſſel.

Soon after Michaelmas, the bear ſeeks his den, which is his winter-quarters; this he finds under ſome mountain, where the rock hangs over, or in ſome natural cavern. Here he makes himſelf a large and ſoft bed of moſs-leaves, and the like. He hides the opening with branches and boughs of trees, and

lets it be ſnowed up; ſo that he is not eaſily found, but by thoſe that are taught, or have thoroughly learned his cuſtoms. In his den he ſhall be ſo taken, ſometimes for a week, with a heavy ſleep, that by ſhooting at him, and even wounding him, he will hardly awake: and what is moſt ſurpriſing is, that he will lie there the whole winter, without eating or drinking; and yet, according to all accounts, when he goes out in the ſpring of the year, he is found to be fatteſt: according to the common ſaying, he has ſucked his paws, or held them to his mouth: he ſucks them till they make a white froth, which makes them ſore and tender; ſo that in the ſpring, when he goes out, he can hardly bear to tread upon a ſtone: he is at this ſeaſon lame, and hops about for ſome time, and of this the huntſmen take advantage.

His ſtomach is alſo ſick at this ſeaſon, and drawn up by his long faſting; and to cure it, he looks out for an ant's-hillock, of which he ſwallows up the whole: this ſcours his inſide, and cleanſes and ſtrengthens his ſtomach. As long as the bear lies in his den or hole, he is the property of the proprietor of the wood, according to the Norway law, p. 832. When the farmers go out a bear-ſhooting, they go commonly two or three in company, that they may aſſiſt one another if they miſs their aim: they force him and tire him firſt with their ſmall dogs, who are brought up to that ſport; and of this kind he is moſt afraid, for they can run under his belly, and lay hold of his genitals; larger dogs he lays hold of at once, and tears them to pieces. But when the little ones have tired him, with running and jumping about him, he then gets up to the ſide of a tree, or rock, and ſets his back againſt it, and tears up the ſtones and earth, and throws ſome at one, and ſome at another, to defend himſelf. At this time it is, that the marksman is to give him a ball or two

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from his gun: if he receives it in his cheſt, or under the ſhoulder, or in his ears, he falls: but any other wound makes him the fiercer, and he will fly upon the ſhooter, who muſt defend himſelf as well as he can, with his empty gun, in which he ought to have a bayonet fixed, as is cuſtomary in Switzerland and Tyrol, to keep him off.

If the ſhooter or huntſman wants this, and has not a ſecond at hand to ſend another ball at him, he has nothing to defend himſelf with but his knife, which is like a dagger, and hangs by a braſs-chain, always on the ſide of a Norwegian farmer: this he takes croſs-ways in his hand, to run down the bear's open throat. If he does not ſucceed in this, his life is loſt, the bear flays his ſkin off, and pulls the hair and fleſh over his head and ears, face and all.

Sometimes, however, the bear is contented with beating his conquered enemy with his paws, till he ſeems to be dead; and when he perceives that he draws no more breath, he will leave him: ſometimes that way a life is ſaved. If the farmer conquers, which generally happens, he then flays the bear, and fixes up the head as a trophy of victory, and proof of his courage, on his houſe. Some farmer's houſes are ornamented with three or four at a time. A bear's hide will ſell for four, five, or ſix rixdollars. They ſay their fleſh does not taſte badly, but it is rather too much like liver, excepting when it is ſalted; a fine fat bear-ham is generally commended, and does a hoſt as much honour at a wedding, as it gives pleaſure and ſatisfaction to the gueſts.

The wolf is the peſt of this country, is ſhaped like a large dog, but his teeth and claws are ſtronger: the colour is commonly grey, but in the mountain in winter white. The wolves have five or ſix young at a time, which we are very diligent to deſtroy: they prey and live on all ſuch creatures as they can

conquer, nay the very dogs, in hard winter, they often ſeize on and devour at farmers' doors; yet however fierce in their onſets, they are notwithſtanding daunted at any reſiſtance. They can ſuffer hunger and hardſhips a long time, which is very providential for them, as their food is uncertain. When hunger becomes too violent, they will devour any thing, even clay, if it be comeatable, which not being a food of eaſy digeſtion, remains in their guts till they get fleſh, and that works it off with vehemence; then they are heard to howl moſt diſmally for pain; and if watched afterwards, and their excrements are found, they are mixed with a wooly, and other unnutritive ſubſtances, as moſs, birch-tops, &c. When outrageous with hunger, they often take away horſes from ſledges; for which reaſon travellers at that time of the year are uſually provided with fire-arms againſt ſuch invaſions.

The ſame methods are employed to deſtroy the wolves as the bears, to wit, inſtruments to blow them up, charged guns laid by a carcaſe, that go off with the leaſt touch. Sometimes, though pretty much diſuſed at preſent, large deep holes are dug in the ground, with a narrow place to paſs through, and hid with a falſe cover like a trap-door, which falls down, and ſhuts up again of itſelf. In theſe pits the wolf is ſometimes found in a corner, along with other beaſts, which, out of fear, he does not touch; nay it ſometimes happens, that the peaſants having fallen in traps, are found there ſitting along with him: and for this reaſon there are ſtrict orders, to give notice in all the neighbourhood, when, and where, ſuch holes are made. There is a ſort of yellow moſs found upon the fir-trees, which has a poiſonous quality always fatal to wolves, and is put into carcaſes laid purpoſely for them.

The goup, or loſſen, is ſomething ſmaller than a wolf, but as fierce and dangerous, bites and tears

all to pieces that it can maſter; its ſkin is of a light grey or white, with dark ſpots: a ſingle ſkin is ſometimes ſold for eight, ten, or twelve rix-dollars, according to the goodneſs. Their claws are very ſharp and crooked, turning in like a cat's. They are, indeed, of the cat or tyger kind: their backs bend like them, eſpecially when they are in their holes looking for prey among the creatures that paſs by; they throw themſelves at once upon their prey, as ſoon as in their reach. When a goupe is attacked by a dog, he throws himſelf immediately on his back, in the manner of a cat, and turns up his fore-legs, to be the better able to defend himſelf: the dog on this lays hold, and thinks himſelf conqueror; but the goupe then makes uſe of his ſharp claws ſo effectually, that he flays the enemy alive. In Norway there are three ſorts of goupes; the wolf-goupe, the fox-goupe, and the cat-goupe; ſo called from their reſemblance to theſe ſeveral creatures. They go out like the wolf, except that they do not, like him, appear ſo publickly in the open flat country, but keep more in the woods, and lurk in holes in the earth, which they dig for themſelves, deep and winding; but they are driven out of them with fire and ſmoke. In the day-time they will lie hid, and ſteal upon their prey, as hath been already obſerved, which they can ſee at a great diſtance; for their ſight is ſharp.

They are very nice, and of a ſheep or goat, do not eat more than the head or udder; and by this circumſtance, one knows that the loſſen has been there. The wild cat, which ſeems, from its aſpect, to be of their kind, is their worſt enemy: their almoſt continual employment is to look out for them in their holes, and ſteal their prey from them. They are very cunning in undermining a ſheep-fold, where they help themſelves very nobly.

Jerven or erven, is a beaſt peculiar to Norway, and little known to other countries, but by report. For ſize and ſhape it is not unlike to a long-bodied dog, with thick legs, very ſharp claws and teeth; is bold enough to attack every thing he can poſſibly conquer. His colour is black, variegated with brown and yellowiſh ſtreaks; his ſkin ſhines like damaſk, it is covered with ſoft hair, and is very precious; and therefore it is well worth the huntſman's while to kill them without firing or wounding the ſkin, though difficult. They ſhoot him with a bow and blunt wooden arrows, that the ſkin, which is the only thing that is valuable, may not be cut. The beſt opportunity of catching him, is, when he, according to his cuſtom, is gorged, preſſes and ſqueezes himſelf between two trees ſtanding near together, that he may eaſe and exonerate his ſtomach, which has not time to digeſt what he has ſo gluttonouſly devoured.

The ermin, called in Norway roeſe-cat, becauſe it hides itſelf in the cracks of rocks, and among heaps of ſtones, is of the weazel kind, and ſcarce differs from the common one, except in colour, which is beſt in Norway, and keeps longer than any other. The ermins run after mice like cats; they drag away what they catch, particularly eggs, which are their niceſt delicacy: for this reaſon, it is frequent in calm weather to ſee the ermins along the ſhore ſwimming to the ſmall iſlands, where the water-fowl's eggs are found in great quantities. When they have their young on any of thoſe iſlands, they bring them aſhore to the continent on a piece of chip or little bit of wood, the mother ſwimming behind, and with her ſnout puſhing it backwards and forwards to get it along. So ſmall as this creature is, it is capable ſometimes to deſtroy the largeſt beaſt, as the elk or bear, which it does in this manner: whenever either is aſleep, the ermin will creep into his

his ear, and lay hold with his ſharp teeth ſo very faſt that he cannot ſlip; upon which the large animal begins to run about and roars till exhauſted: at length, being wearied out, becomes faint, drops, languiſhes and dies. In the ſame manner he ſteals upon a ſleeping eagle, and will let this bird fly away with him on his back; but he continues gnawing, till, by the great effuſion of blood, the bird drops down dead on the ground. They are ſhot with blunt arrows, and catched in traps, or elſe betwixt two flat ſtones; one of which is ſet up with a pin, but drops when the thread is pulled to which the bait is faſtened, ſo he is ſqueezed dead.

It is ſaid, that this creature is ſo cleanly and nice about its white hair, that he would rather go through fire than through the leaſt mud or dirt; yet wherever he goes with his cleanlineſs, he ſtinks as bad as the pole-cat. This is eſpecially obſervable of the ermins when they pair, which often happens; for both ſexes are very laſcivious.

The porcupine is ſufficiently known: he often conveys himſelf into the bear's holes, and with his numerous prickles is ſo troubleſome to his rough hoſt, that he is obliged to abandon the tenement to him.

The lemming, peculiar to Norway, may be referred to the claſs of rats and mice; the former in many parts here do not live, doubtleſs on account of ſome mineral exhalations noxious to them. The lemming's ſhape and make is in part like a mouſe, and part like a rat, except that the tail is very ſhort, about a thumb's length, and a little turned up at the end; the legs are very ſhort, and ſcarce appear to keep the belly from the ground; the head and mouth are like a field-mouſe's, with very long and large whiſkers, conſiſting of about half a ſcore of long hairs on each ſide. They are ſomething larger than a mouſe, but not quite ſo big as a rat; have

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very ſoft hair, and of different colours; black with yellow and brown in ſtreaks, and ſome in ſpots: their eyes and ears are ſmall, their teeth long and ſharp: they multiply very faſt, and form a kind of plague once or twice in twenty years. By quitting their peculiar abodes, they gather in large flocks, conſiſting of many thouſands, deſtructive to ſeed, corn and graſs: where they advance they make a viſible path-way, cutting off all that is green till they reach the ſea, in which they ſwim about a little, then ſink and are drowned; thoſe failing death this way, periſh by the winter's cold. When the wandering-fit comes on them, they carry their young ones with them in their mouths, or on their backs; if oppoſed by the peaſants, they ſtand undaunted and bark like little dogs: if any one ſtrike at them with a ſtick, they will bite at it like a dog. They affect a ſtrait line in their courſe; and wherever they direct, it prognoſticates a bad harveſt: but in return the countryman expects good hunting or ſport of the bear, fox, maar, and ſeveral other large animals, which follow theſe creatures, being to them a delicious food.

The bite of ſerpents, toads, and other poiſonous creatures that are found but in ſome parts of Norway, is not ſo poiſonous as that of the ſnakes in Italy and Africa.

There are ſeveral ſorts of ſerpents; thoſe which are moſt common to us are black, grey, ſilver-grey, white, yellow, and triangular.

The water-ſnakes, which are commonly dark-coloured, and are not reckoned ſo poiſonous as thoſe on land, are found here every where in freſh water.

The cluſter-worm, peculiar to Norway, is properly a congeries of animals; and conſiſts of an immenſe number of ſmall worms gathered and extended for a great away along the earth, juſt like a

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rope of many fathoms, and it is a finger and a half, or two fingers broad. Each worm is not thicker than a piece of coarſe thread, and as long as an oat-corn, of a watery colour, with a black ſpot on the head. Theſe kind of worms love to be together; and are found by millions continually crawling upon one another, yet ſo, that the whole company moves continually forwards, and leaves a path behind them upon the bare ground like a drawn line. What this almoſt-numberleſs quantity of ſmall worms nouriſhment or ſubſiſtence is, is not to be perceived; and it is probable they prey upon one another.

Bees do not generate in Norway, the ſummer there being too ſhort for them; but humble-bees and other flying inſects are very frequent. There are common flies large and ſmall, black, grey, and brown, with ſpotted and ſtriped wings; they are all ſeen here, particularly in the autumn, in ſuch quantities that they are very troubleſome in the houſes; and we have large and ſmall gnats much more numerous, which with their buzzing and ſtinging awake the ſleeping: they would be inſufferable, if they were not driven away by ſmoaking the bed-chamber.

Among the water-inſects the moſt worthy of obſervation are the following: the little round beetle, which is ſmall and black, round as a bell, and has a thin narrow tail: horſes and cows are often hurt by ſwallowing them in their water. The bear-fiſh is a miſchievous ſea-inſect, ſo called by the common people; it has a whitiſh, hard, and ſhining horny ſhell, divided by twelve rings or circles, and on the undermoſt or flat ſide it has twelve feet: thoſe vermin plague various ſorts of fiſh, but moſt of any the cod.

Various and perilous are the Norwegians' methods of bird-catching, of which the moſt important and dangerous is in the diſtricts, where they keep dogs trained

trained on purpoſe to fetch the ſhore or ſtrand birds out of their holes, which are almoſt inacceſſible. The law is, that one farmer muſt not keep a greater number of theſe dogs than his neighbour, that he may not injure him in his livelihood. The dogs, as well as their maſters, run the greateſt hazard of their lives, and ſometimes periſh by unhappy falls; for they either climb or are puſhed up thoſe exceſſive high and ſteep rocks, finding but here and there a place or hold for their feet; or elſe they are let down from the top one hundred fathoms or more, that they may get into the hollows, under the projecting cliffs and caverns formed by nature.

The alk is a bird peculiar to Norway, and for its feathers very uſeful; it is as big as a large duck, but narrower in the breaſt; the legs ſtand cloſer together and the wings are leſs: they are diſtinguiſhed into two ſorts by the beak; it is in ſome longiſh and narrow, and in others thick, ſhort, and bent on the back: it is black, excepting at the ends of the wings and tail, which are white, as well as all underneath; and from the eyes there goes a white ſtripe all down the neck. They can fiſh and ſwim beyond many others, but are very weak at flying or walking, becauſe the legs are as they were upon the rump, ſo very far behind, that it is troubleſome to move them on land; the bird therefore totters like a drunken man: on this account is the ſaying, "He is as "drunk as an alk." The wings are of no great uſe, and for that reaſon it is eaſily taken on the neſt. They always build by the ſea-ſide, on the higheſt and ſteepeſt rocks or cliffs, whither thoſe bold and ventureſome bird-catchers purſue them, and find fifty, eighty, or an hundred pair ſitting interchangeably upon one another's eggs. Theſe reſemble hens' eggs; and if they do not grow cold at the expiration of fourteen days, the young are hatched, and in fourteen days more they are fit to go to the ſea with

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the old ones. Their number is ſo great, that L. Debes, in his deſcription of Faroe, p. 133, ſays, they hide the ſun like a cloud when they fly out from the rocks, and the noiſe of their wings make a roaring in the air like a ſtorm. It is ſaid in the ſame place, that they have annually but one young one: but ſome obſervers ſay, they find two eggs in the neſt, and that is little enough, in regard to the great number that is annually catched or ſhot; ſo that our Creator's œconomy is alſo here aſtoniſhing. The alk is counted the greateſt herring-fiſher; and they will dive, according to our Stranſiddere's atteſtations, twenty fathom deep under water: they have ſometimes the misfortune to miſtake, and bite hold of a fiſh-hook, and ſo are drawn from that depth as fiſh.

The edderfulg is a bird peculiar to the north ſea, a medium between the wild gooſe and the wild duck, and partakes of their reſpective qualities: the feathers of its breaſt, called eider-dun, procure a good livelihood to people in many places. The colour of the cock is variegated. In the winter they are almoſt continually on the ſea, and they ſeek the coaſt in the ſpring in large numbers to make their neſts in the cliffs, and on ſmall iſlands, either among ſtones, or among the tufts of buſhes and large ſea-plants. They lay five, or, at moſt, ſix eggs, of a green colour, and as large as a gooſe's egg, in ſhape ſomewhat long.

If the firſt five eggs are ſtolen away, then the bird lays again but only three, and in another neſt; if theſe are loſt, then ſhe lays one more. Four weeks the mother ſits alone on the eggs, and the cock ſtands watching underneath in the water: ſo that if any human creature or beaſt of prey approaches, he gives her notice, by crying, "Hu, hu," and then ſhe covers her eggs with moſs and down, which ſhe keeps ready prepared, and comes down to her mate

in the water; but he does not receive her very kindly, and, if her eggs are loſt by any accident, he gives her many blows with his wings, which ſhe muſt take patiently; and after this he entirely deſerts her, and ſhe is obliged to join the flock of her kind, under the ſame diſgrace. A few days after the young ones are hatched they are taken by the mother to the ſea, and are not forſaken even in the greateſt diſtreſs. She has been ſeen in time of danger to take her young ones on her back, to ſwim the better away with them when they could not come after her. On account that the ravens and crows hunt out for theſe birds-neſts to ſuck out their eggs, or to eat the young ones, it has made them ſometimes build half a mile farther up in the country, that they may find a better hiding-place for their neſt; and then, when the young ones are to go to the ſea with their mother, ſhe lays herſelf down for them to climb on her back, and carries them away by an even flight.

Though it be not ſuffered to deſtroy theſe birds on account of their fine down, but only to gather it off from the the neſt, yet they are too often killed by the inconſiderate: but the feathers and down which are plucked off the dead birds are not near ſo good as that ſhe plucks off herſelf from her breaſt; this ſhe does the laſt eight days ſhe ſits, to make the young ones a ſoft and warm bed. The dead bird's down is greaſy, and ſubject to decay, and is not near ſo light as the down of the neſt when it is cleanſed from the ſtalks of herbs and other mixtures. It is ſold, when pure, for two rix-dollars per pound, and is a good livelihood to many of the people who live about the coaſts; for it is ſo light, warm, ſoft, and ready to ſpread itſelf, that two handfuls ſqueeſed together are enough to fill a down quilt *.

* A covering like a feather-bed, which they uſe in that country inſtead of quilts or blankets.

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The horſe-gogen is about as large as a wood-pigeon. Its note is not at all like the other gogs or cuckows, but reſembles the bleating of a goat, and is therefore by ſome called gord-geed or ground-goat; it is moſt heard in the night: ſome call it alſo the fog-bird, becauſe it is oftenest ſeen in miſty weather.

The immeren, or great northern diver, is a pretty large ſea-bird, a little bigger than a gooſe. It has a long neck, the upper part black, as well as the bill and feet; but from the breaſt downwards it is white: there are alſo ſome white feathers at the extremity of the wings and tail. The wings are ſo ſhort that they can hardly raiſe themſelves with them, and the legs ſtand ſo far backwards that they are not ſo fit to walk with as to paddle along the water. They lay but two eggs, which is very likely, for one never ſees more than two young ones with them. Under their wings in their body there are two pretty deep holes, big enough to put one's fiſt in; in each of theſe they hide an egg, and hatch the young ones there as perfect, and with leſs trouble, than others do on ſhore. The young ones are eaſily enticed aſhore, and killed; but the old ones, which are moſt valued on account of their fine feathers and down, know very well how to guard themſelves againſt gut-ſhot, for they duck quick under water, and then come up in a moment. Several ſhot may be diſcharged at the place where they are expected to appear, but ſeldom with ſucceſs: thoſe that would kill them muſt aim at their hinder parts, that the ſhot may go in under the feathers; for they grow ſo thick, and are ſo very ſoft, that the ſhot is damped, and loſes its force, if they are ſhot in the fore-parts.

The lom, or leſſer northern diver, is all over of mouſe-grey colour, and ſomewhat lighter under the breaſt. Though their wings are but ſmall, yet they fly pretty well; but they walk extremely ſlow, and

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with difficulty, becauſe their legs ſtand ſo far backwards under their tail, as they do under the immeren and razor-bill; therefore it builds its neſt in the ruſhes, or on the ſide of freſh-water lakes, but ſo cloſe to the water, that the dams can roll themſelves down into their proper element from the neſt, without the help of their legs. Though they live by freſh waters, ſtill they fly to the ſea alſo, to ſeek for food: there, as in the former place, they live upon all kind of ſmall fiſh, worms, and inſects, which they ſeek for, by ducking twelve or ſixteen fathom deep in the water. The hen lays two dark-brown eggs, and ſits alternately with her mate to hatch them: this is done in four weeks; and if the water riſes ſo high that it gets into the neſt, one or other ſtill continues ſitting on them. When this bird is in a ſportive humour, it makes a frightful ugly noiſe, juſt like the cries of an human creature in imminent danger, and calling for relief. It makes another very different noiſe, which is a ſignal to the farmers for fine weather, after a great deal of wet and ſtormy ſeaſons: at theſe times they are ſeen to fly pretty high over their neſt. The lom's ſkin is drawn off with down and all, and is uſed to line caps with, and is reckoned better than ſwan-ſkins.

The fiſh-eagle is of a light-brown colour, and exceeds the common one in ſize. When this bird flies out at ſea to ſtrike a fiſh with his talons, he ſometimes happens to lay hold of ſuch as are too ſtrong for him, and they will drag him down to the bottom: this has been particularly ſeen more than once with the helleflinder. This is ſo large that it will ſometimes fill a c ſk. The queit's high and prominent back makes him appe r, in the eyes of the eagle, much leſs than he really is. When the eagle ſtrikes his talons into him, he cannot eaſily get them out again, becauſe of their crookedneſs and length, ſo that the fiſh drags him down with him, and the bird

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makes a miſerable cry, keeping himſelf up, and working with his wings ſpread, as long as he poſſibly can, though in vain; for at laſt he muſt yield, and become a prey to thoſe he intended to devour.

A fiſh-eagle ſtanding one day on the bank of a river, ſaw a large ſalmon, as if it were quite under him: he ſtruck inſtantly one of his talons into the root of an elm juſt by, and partly hanging over the river: the other he ſtruck into the ſalmon, which was very large, and in his proper element. The ſtroke doubled his ſtrength, ſo that he ſwam away, and ſplit the eagle to his neck, making literally a ſpread-eagle of him, a creature otherwiſe known only in heraldry.

The partridge is a national and peculiar Norwegian bird, belonging to it, perhaps, rather than to any other country. In the ſummer they live upon berries, tops of trees, and other greens; but in the winter they do as has been ſaid of the groufe: they ſeek covering and warmth by burying themſelves in the deepeſt ſnow, where they ſit in great heaps together, taking a magazine of food with them in their crops, by ſtuffing them as full as they can with elm and birch-tops, ſo that their breaſts ſtand out, and make them look as big again. With this ſtore they ſupport themſelves until the following ſpring.

Fowlers are often forced in this country to make uſe of knives, to defend themſelves againſt the fiercer birds, which, by the impetuoſity of their flight, faſten on them and expire.

The ſouthwind bird is ſo called, becauſe it is never ſeen but when the ſouth wind begins to blow; as, in like manner, the bird called the north-wind's-pipe, prognoſticates the north wind: they are living weather-glaſſes to the Norwegians, not from any reflexion, but from the preſſure of the air on their bodies; juſt as the cats, ſcratching the trees, portends a ſtorm.

The cock-of-the-wood, in the general appearance, is not unlike an eagle, and is the largeſt of all the eatable birds in this country. It reſembles a wild turkey-cock, eſpecially in the bill and feet, though the claws are ſomewhat more crooked: this is to be underſtood of the cock, who is black, and ſometimes of a dark-grey, and has ſome red about the eyes. The hen, called Roy, is much leſs, and is browniſh, with black ſpots: they generally are found in great woods, where they live upon juniper-berries and fir-tops: this may be perceived by the taſte of their fleſh, which is otherwiſe very tender, and an excellent diſh roaſted: it has from this food that reſinous taſte, for which it is ſo remarkable: in winter they bury themſelves in the ſnow, like the partridge and grouſe, but not deep; nor do they ſtay there in the night. This is the reaſon that they are deſtroyed by the fox, who knows how to find out their unſafe quarters. They have alſo a dangerous enemy in the goſs-hawk, which they do not oppoſe, though they are much larger. When they are about breeding, it is ſaid the cock ſwells and raiſes his feathers like a turkey-cock, and makes a ſort of cracking noiſe with his bill.

In regard to ſea-fiſh, Norway is ſuperior to moſt other countries, and inferior to none. Under the thick and continual flakes of ice, which cover the north-ſea, from the eightieth degree to the pole, ſeems the proper abode of the beſt kind of fiſhes; for there they breed in peace, and are protected from the devouring whale: the lungs of this fiſh being formed like thoſe of a land-animal, he muſt often fetch breath; therefore does not venture to go under the ice.

There are but few ſea-animals, as the whale, porpoiſe, ſhark, and grampus, that, according to the manner of land-animals, bring forth their young alive; the moſt are viviparous, or ſuch as breed from *ſpawn*; and contrary to birds, which lay annually in each

each neſt a few eggs, each of theſe has annually many thouſand eggs to caſt on the bottom of the ſea.

Little ſhall be ſaid of the ſea-fiſh generally known to other countries. The object of the preſent enquiry ſhall be thoſe particular to Norway.

The anchovy is properly of the herring kind, but much leſs, and only differs by the roughneſs of the belly, when ſtroked with a finger from the tail upwards.

The ſummerſey is a violent enemy and perſecutor of herrings; for when harraſſed and purſued by the whales, till ſtopped by ſhallows, theſe ſmall devourers continue the chace, and drive the herrings before them into creeks and inlets with ſuch vehemence, that they frequently run themſelves aſhore.

Innumerable multitudes ſwarm near the north pole about the middle of winter. They come up to the ſhore, and are purſued and driven thither in inconceivable numbers, by their enemies, the fiſh of prey. Theſe are principally the ſharks, the ſmaller of the whale kind, and that ſort, among larger ones, which is called the Herring-whale. This monſtrous fiſh, like the chief tyrant, continually drives the large ſhoal of herrings and cod before him; and when, on account of his enormous ſize, he dares not venture himſelf further in between the outer iſlands and rocks, he ſtill remains a month or ſix weeks on the watch, near the great ſand-bank.

This extraordinary ſand-bank runs parallel to the ſhore for about ſixty Norwegian, and above three hundred Engliſh miles. In the mean time, the whale ſeems as if he had reſigned his command to the ſmaller fiſh of prey, and thoſe, at laſt, to the cod and ſome others; which, while they themſelves are purſued, in turn, never ceaſe purſuing the herrings, which are a prey to every thing. How violently thoſe poor creatures are harraſſed and driven along the ſhore, and in the inlets and creeks, may be concluded

ded from this: that the water, though quite ſtill before, curls up in waves where they come. They crowd together in ſuch numbers, that they may be taken up by pails-full, and people even pick them up with their hands.

The ſpek-hugger, or vahu, is in ſhape much like a porpoiſe, and about four feet long. It has a ſharp mouth and very keen teeth; which, with its long projecting jaws, makes it ſomewhat reſemble the crocodile. This is a troubleſome fiſh to others; though his principal pleaſure is to harraſs and plague the great whales; which, on account of their large ſize, are leſs able to turn about, or defend themſelves againſt thoſe leſſer creatures. Sometimes one may ſee half a ſcore, or more, of theſe together, fall eagerly upon the whale, and faſten upon his ſides: they will hang there an hour without loſing their hold, till they have each tore out a mouthful of fleſh a foot ſquare. During this attack, the whale makes a diſmal noiſe like diſtant thunder, and will jump up five or ſix feet above the ſurface of the water; at which time theſe fiſh are ſeen hanging about him. Sometimes they do not leave him till they have ſtripped him to the bone.

The ſaw-fiſh often attacks the whale, and with his ſaw tears him under the belly, ſo that he makes a terrible roaring, and jumps up above the ſurface of the water, in order to eſcape.

The whale is a fiſh generally known by its name, little more; there being ſcarce but fiſhermen who have ever ſeen any. The whales are annually ſeen along the weſtern coaſt of Norway about January, and are welcome gueſts; for when the peaſants and fiſhermen obſerve the whales at ſeveral miles diſtance, whom they know by the appearance of ſmall water-ſpouts in the air, which they emit through the apertures on the top of their heads, by reſpiration; they are aſſured by this joyful warning, that

hat their winter-harveſt, or fiſhery, is approaching: immediately after the ſea appears covered, in a manner, with a great many chimnies ſmoaking; for all the whale-kind have lungs, and breathe like quadrupeds, requiring frequent ſupplies of freſh air. Their length amounts frequently to ſixty or ſeventy feet; their ſhape pretty much reſembles that of the cod; they have a large head, and ſmall eyes in proportion; their ſkin is ſmooth, and not very thick; the colour of their back is dark, variegated, or marbled; under the belly it is white; their ſwallow, or throat, is very narrow in proportion to their ſize. Under their back-bone lies a long bladder, which is dilated, or contracted, as the fiſh pleaſes: the uſe of this is not to receive any nouriſhment, for none is found there, but only to lighten the fiſh, and make it buoyant. The tail, which he makes uſe of as an oar to row himſelf with, and which prudence forbids to approach too near, has this particularity, that it is not perpendicular to the ſurface of the water as he ſwims, like that of other fiſh, but horizontal; and this is the great characteriſtic of the ſpecies. They copulate after the manner of land animals, and to that end ſtand upright on their tails. The mother brings forth but one or two young ones at a birth; they are nine or ten feet long when brought forth; they ſuck the dam's teat, which is ſituated near the opening on the belly. When the young are tired in their courſe, the dam takes them between her great fins, and ſwims away with them immediately. Under the ſkin the whale is covered with fat, two or three feet thick, out of which the oil is extracted; and under the fat is the fleſh of a reddiſh colour, which is ſometimes eaten, though not much admired; but the tongue and the tail are reckoned delicate food. Their nurture, in general, is ſmall inſects not larger than flies, that float upon the water in great abundance, and alſo various ſorts

of ſmall fiſh, particularly herrings, which they drive before them in ſhoals, and devour in great quantities. They ſeldom do any harm; for though they ſometimes come up cloſe to the fiſhing boats, yet they ſwim away as ſoon as the people ſtrike the edge of the boat with the oar, unleſs it be in their pairing-time; when they are found to be more dangerous. There are various ſpecies of whales, and of a ſmaller ſize than the one deſcribed.

The ſturgeon, an excellent fiſh for the table, is ten or twelve feet in length, very ſtrong and voracious. There are four different ſorts of this fiſh. They come towards the ſhore about midſummer after the herrings, which they drive before them at ſuch a violent rate, that they often raiſe themſelves above the ſurface of the water in the purſuit. They do not ſwim together in ſhoals, nor extend in breadth, but follow one another in a ſtraight line, laying hold of each other's tails. They are ſometimes caught in the ſalmon-nets, or ſtruck with a harpoon. Their fleſh is finely interlarded with fat, and a ſingle fiſh will fill two caſks.

It is ſaid that the crab and ſtar-fiſh often feed upon the oyſter; and that they uſe this ſtratagem to prevent their being pinched by the ſhell; for while it is open, they throw in a ſtone which hinders it from ſhutting cloſe, and then the oyſter becomes an eaſy prey to them. They ſeem to exceed the witty fox in this particular; for that animal, notwithſtanding all his cunning, often puts his paw, or even his tongue in the ſhell, and then the oyſter holds him faſt, ſo that he is ſometimes drowned by the ſpring tides. Several inſtances of this have been ſeen on the coaſt of Norway.

The ſea urchin, *echinus marinus*, called alſo *pomum marinum*, from the riſe and figure of the thin and tender ſhell that incloſes the fiſh, is one of the *ſtrangeſt* that the ſea contains. They differ greatly

in

ſize; for ſome are found not bigger than a walnut, others are equal to a large apple; a few have been ſeen as big as the head of a new-born infant. Their ſhape likewiſe differs: ſome are like a cone, others quite round, excepting the nether part, which is the greateſt number. The ſhell is covered with a vaſt number of ſmall prickles, like the briſtles of a hedge-hog, which are not larger than a ſmall pin at the moſt. There is a ſmall ſort, that has them as long again as the largeſt. They probably ſhed the prickles annually, and have new ones, which their fineneſs ſeems to require. When juſt taken out of the ſea, they have a beautiful greeniſh luſtre, but their greateſt beauty appears when they are dried or boiled, and the prickles are rubbed off. Their beauty then conſiſts in certain regular and proportionable ſtripes, interchanged among one another, of a cylindrical form, and running from the top to the bottom. Some of theſe are white, others of a dark red, and others of a light red, or orange-colour. Theſe coloured ſtripes are again ſtrewed over with as many little knobs, as there were originally prickles. The internal part of this fiſh is ſtill more difficult to be conceived, without ſeeing it. The fine ſhell broken, there is found in it a quantity of ſlime and water, and only a ſmall fiſh, of a black or dark red colour; from which there ſhoots into all the turnings and windings of the ſhell, a great number of fine threads, which ſeem compoſed of a thicker ſlime, or are, perhaps, a kind of guts. They have a communication with the external prickles; and between theſe here is diſpoſed in ſtripes a great deal of yellowiſh ſpawn. The fiſh lies ſtretched in the ſhell, from the bottom to the top; and there is in that part, a ſmall and almoſt impercitible opening, like the anus; through this the excrements paſs, conſiſting of ſeveral little black grains. The mouth is on the flat ſide, curiouſly contrived, and

is formed of five bones, part convex, and part concave, all running to a ſmall point, where they join together like the bill of a bird, and look ſomething like a flower. The ſea-urchin is found on a ſandy bottom, and rolls himſelf about with his prickles wherever he pleaſes. When the tide happens to fall on a ſudden, they become a prey to the crow, and other birds. At the approach of bad weather, they anchor themſelves to a pebble. There is another and coarſer ſpecies of the ſea-urchin.

The hermits, or craw-fiſh ſnails are ſaid to ſwim, or row themſelves along by the help of their extended claws, pretty quick. It is obſerved, that they often quit their ſhell to ſwim the quicker; but they return again to take poſſeſſion of their former habitation; though in this they find themſelves ſometimes prevented by an envious neighbour of their own kind, who thinks it more convenient than his own; and when he has taken poſſeſſion, he defends himſelf in it as if poſſeſſion gave him a right to it.

The crab is conquered by the eel, which twines itſelf about the creature's claws, and, by ſqueezing itſelf together, breaks them off, and ſucks them with great eagerneſs. Pliny ſays, that the crabs fight with one another as the rams do, by butting againſt each other with the ſmall ſharp horns they have on their heads.

Cockles, pectunculi, which are otherwiſe called, by way of eminence, the ſhell-fiſh, are in plenty here, as in other places, namely the common ſort, and thoſe which are alſo called the crow-ſhell, from the crow, who is very fond of them, and tries his ſkill by opening them in this manner: the bird picks the ſhell up in his bill, and flies up very high, and then drops it on the rocks, which breaks the ſhell to pieces. Theſe are pickled like oyſters for exportation.

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The muſcle differs a good deal from the former, being of a larger ſize, and is not reckoned fit to be eaten; but are only uſed, as ſome of the ſhell-fiſh of the oyſter-kind, for baits. In theſe ſhells they ſometimes find pearls, that are purer and more valuable than thoſe taken out of the oyſter-ſhells: but our right pearl-muſcle is a third ſort, and is found with us only in rivers and freſh water. Theſe differ in ſhape from the ſea-muſcles, the ſhell being almoſt round, and flatter and broader than that of the common muſcle. They reſemble them in colour, the outſide being black, and the inſide of a bright pearly hue. In moſt parts of Norway, particularly the weſt-ſide, there are rivers and brooks, where theſe ſort of muſcles are found. The right of the pearl-fiſhery belongs to the King, and is carried on at his Majeſty's expence. The pearl-rivers in Chriſtianſand are reckoned the beſt in Norway. The genuine pearls, which are annually taken about midſummer in theſe waters, are the property of her Majeſty the Queen alone, as one of the regalia of the kingdom of Norway.

The form and ſhape of theſe muſcles are well known. As long as they are in the water, the fiſh is almoſt uſually out of the ſhell, much like a ſnail, dragging its houſe behind him: but though the ſhells are open while they continue in the water, yet they lie in ſuch a manner, that one cannot perceive the fiſh; for it hides itſelf and part of the ſhell in the ſand. If they are taken haſtily out of the water, the fiſh may be ſeen out of the ſhell; but when he finds himſelf out of his element, he retires ſlow into it again, and then cloſes it. They are taken up with the hands, or a ſort of wooden pincers, and ſometimes one may take them up by putting a twig into the ſhell, while it is open; upon which they immediately cloſe it, and hang ſo faſt to the twig, that they may be eaſily drawn out of the water. If they

do not hit upon the opening at once, the ſhell cloſes as ſoon as it is touched, and conſequently this method proves ineffectual. They often move themſelves, but ſo ſlow, that their motion is imperceptible, and can only be obſerved by a little track they leave behind them, like that of a ſnail. It is a vulgar error to imagine that they move themſelves to the ſurface of the water, to breed pearls, by imbibing the dew; and it is as ridiculous to think, that pearls are the ſemen, with which theſe muſcles propagate their ſpecies: if that were the caſe, then the greateſt number of pearls would be found where there are the greateſt number of muſcles; but experience ſhews the contrary. The fiſhermen generally find the pearl in that part of the fiſh which is called the beard in the oyſter, and ſometimes on both ſides; but the pearls are always flat on that ſide that grows to the ſhell. From this we may conclude, that the ſubſtance of which pearls conſiſt, muſt have been fluid at firſt. As the pearls are frequently found growing to the ſhells, even thoſe of the right water, (the word water is here a term of art, and ſignifies the luſtre of the ſhell, as well as the pearl) as well as thoſe with a reddiſh caſt, and thoſe pearls that are faſtened to the ſhell, are uſually of the ſame colour with the ſhell, we may conclude, that the pearl and the ſhell are one ſubſtance. Some are of opinion, that the muſcle cannot produce the pearl of itſelf, and that it is ſomething foreign to the fiſh. The ſkin in which the pearl is encloſed, is ſo tranſparent on the ſide next the ſhell, that one may plainly ſee the luſtre and water of the pearl through it; but one cannot ſo well diſcover the quality through the other part of the ſkins, which is covered with a ſort of ſlime. The ſhells in which the pearls are found, have generally ſome blemiſh in their ſhape, and differ from the reſt, being crooked, ſhort, &c. and the larger the pearl is, the more obvious always is the

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blemiſh. Notwithſtanding all this, one cannot, by the external appearance, declare for a certainty, whether ſuch ſhells have pearls in them or not, and much leſs what water they are of; for the pearls may have been damaged by ſome accident, whilſt they were in their fluid ſtate. A muſcle may have more than one pearl, and ſometimes all of them of a good water. The greateſt number of pearls are of a reddiſh brown; a good many are white or grey, ſome black; but the beſt, which are very ſcarce, are of pure water and excellent luſtre. The muſcle may be opened without deſtroying the fiſh, which will live after the pearl is taken away; but it is obſervable, they never produce any more pearls. There are ſometimes found in Norway, pearls, for their ſize and beautiful water, not inferior to the oriental.

The north ſea contains many monſters, of which the merman, whoſe mate is called the mermaid, deſerves the firſt place, and of which ſo many deſcriptions have been already given, that they are generally known.

The ſea-ſnake is a ſurpriſing and terrifying monſter; is peculiar to the north, conſtantly keeps at the bottom of the ſea, excepting in the month of July and Auguſt, which is their ſpawning-time, and then it mounts to the ſurface in calm weather, but ſinks into the water again, as the wind cauſes the leaſt commotion in the ſea. The coaſt of Norway is the only place in Europe viſited by this terrible creature. Though one cannot have an opportunity of taking the exact dimenſions of this creature, yet all that have ſeen it, are unanimous in affirming, as far as they can judge at a diſtance, it appears to be of the length of a cable, i. e. one hundred fathoms, or ſix hundred Engliſh feet; that it lies on the ſurface of the water (when it is very calm) in many folds, and that there are, in a line with the head, ſome ſmall parts of the back to be ſeen above the ſurface of

the water, when it moves or bends. Theſe at a diſtance appear like ſo many caſks or hogſheads floating in a line, with a conſiderable diſtance between each of them.

It appears that this creature does not, like the eel or land-ſnake, taper gradually to a point; but the body, which looks to be as big as two hogſheads, grows remarkably ſmall at once, juſt where the tail begins. The head, in all the kinds, has a high and broad forehead, but in ſome a pointed ſnout; though in others flat, like that of a cow or a horſe, with large noſtrils, and ſeveral ſtiff hairs, ſtanding out like whiſkers.

It is ſuppoſed that the ſea-ſnakes have a very quick ſmell, which we may conclude from this, that they are obſerved to fly from the ſmell of caſtor. Upon this account, thoſe that go out on Stor-Eggen to fiſh in the ſummer, always provide themſelves with theſe animals. They add, that the eyes of this creature are very large, and of a blue colour, and look like a couple of bright pewter plates. The whole animal is of a dark brown colour; but it is ſpeckled and variegated with light ſtreaks or ſpots, that ſhine like tortoiſe-ſhell. It is of a darker hue about the eyes and mouth than elſewhere, and appears in that part a good deal like thoſe horſes which we call Moors-heads.

They do not ſpout the water out of their noſtrils like the whale, only in one inſtance related by Mr. Eyede; but when the ſnake approaches, it puts the water in great agitation, and makes it run like the current at a mill. Thoſe on the coaſts of Norway differ likewiſe from the Greenland ſea-ſnakes, with regard to the ſkin, which is as ſmooth as glaſs, and has not the leaſt wrinkle, but about the neck, where there is a kind of a mane, which looks like a parcel of ſea-weeds hanging down to the water; and ſome ſay it annually ſheds its ſkin like the land-ſnake.

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The ſea-ſnake, as well as the trold-whale, often ſinks both men and boats: there is not any account of ſuch an accident hereabouts, that might be depended upon; but the north traders inform us of what has frequently happened with them, namely, that the ſea-ſnake has raiſed itſelf up, and throws itſelf acroſs a boat, and ſometimes even acroſs a veſſel of ſome hundred tons burthen, and by its weight has ſunk it to the bottom. One of the aforeſaid north traders, who ſays that he has been near enough to ſome of theſe ſea-ſnakes alive, to feel their ſmooth ſkin, ſays, that they will ſometimes raiſe up their frightful heads, and ſnap a man out of a boat, without hurting the reſt.

It is ſaid that they ſometimes fling themſelves in a wide circle round a boat, ſo that the men are ſurrounded on all ſides. This ſnake generally appears on the water in folds or coils; and the fiſhermen, from a known cuſtom in that caſe, never row towards the openings, or thoſe places where the body is not ſeen, or concealed under the water; if they did, the ſnake would raiſe itſelf up, and overſet the boat; on the contrary, they row full againſt the higheſt part that is viſible, which makes the ſnake immediately dive, and thus they are releaſed from their fears. This is their method, when they cannot avoid them: but when they ſee one of thoſe creatures at a diſtance, they row away with all their might, (by which they ſometimes injure their health,) towards the ſhore, or into a creek, where it cannot follow them.

When they are far from land, it would be in vain to attempt to row away from them; for theſe creatures ſhoot through the water like an arrow out of a bow, ſeeking conſtantly the coldeſt places. In this caſe, they put the former method in execution, or lie upon their oars, and throw any thing that comes to hand at them. If it be but a ſcuttle, or any light

thing, ſo they be touched, they generally plunge into the water, or take another courſe. Of late, the fiſhermen have found the way, in the warm ſummer-months, of providing themſelves with caſtor, which they always carry with them, when they go far out to ſea: they ſhut it up in the ſtern, and if at any time they are particularly apprehenſive of meeting with the ſea-ſnake, they threw a little of it overboard; for by frequent experience, they know to a certainty, that it always avoids this drug. If the ſnake purſues them at other times, they tack about to make him look againſt the ſun, which his eyes will not bear.

The ſea-ſnake ſeems to be like the ſhark, eel, and whale-kind, viviparous. It is ſaid they ſeek their mates at a certain time of the year, in order to couple: for this reaſon, it is ſuppoſed they follow ſhips and boats at thoſe times, which probably appear to them to be creatures of their own kind.

It is ſaid, that, inſtead of caſtor, the fiſhermen provide themſelves with nothing but aſſa-fœtida. by way of defence againſt this and other hurtful ſea-animals, ſuch as the throld-whale, (a fiſh that alſo overſets boats, &c.) for if what they carry have but a ſtrong ſmell, that has the ſame effect; beſides aſſa-fœtida comes at a lower price than caſtor.

As to this laſt drug, it is ſaid, that various experiments confirm this ſingular phænomenon, that if any man has caſtor about him, when in the water, he ſinks inſtantly to the bottom like a ſtone, be he ever ſo good a ſwimmer.

In the remote parts of Norway, according to ſome accounts, people have been poiſoned with the excrements of the ſea-ſerpent, which are often ſeen here, eſpecially in Nordland, in the ſummer months, floating on the water like a fat ſlime. This viſcid matter is ſuppoſed by the fiſhermen to be ſomewhat *vomited up by* them, or elſe their ſperm, or ſome other

other humour. If a fiſherman finds this matter near his net, and inadvertently lets any of it touch his hand, it will occaſion a painful ſwelling and inflammation, which has often proved ſo dangerous, as to require an amputation of the limb. A large ſea-ſnake was ſeen by many people in Dramsforden, and at one time by eleven perſons together: it was in very calm weather, and ſo ſoon as the ſun appeared, and the wind blew a little, it ſhot away like a coiled cable that is ſuddenly thrown out by the ſailors, and they obſerved it was ſome time in ſtretching out its many folds.

The largeſt ſea-monſter in the world is called the Kraken, Kraxen, or, as ſome name it, Krabben, that word being applied by way of eminence to this creature. The laſt name ſeems indeed beſt to agree with the deſcription of this creature, which is round, flat, and full of arms or branches. Amongſt the many great things which are in the ocean, and concealed from our eyes, or only preſented to our view for a few minutes, is the kraken. This creature is the largeſt and moſt ſurpriſing of all the animal creation.

The fiſhermen unanimouſly affirm, and without the leaſt variation in their accounts, that when they row out ſeveral miles to ſea, particularly in the hot ſummer-days, and by their ſituation (which they know by taking a view of certain points of land) expect to find eighty or one hundred fathoms water, it often happens that they do not find above twenty or thirty, and ſometimes leſs. At theſe places they generally find the greateſt plenty of fiſh, eſpecially cod and ling. Their lines, they ſay, are no ſooner out, than they may draw them up with their hooks all full of fiſh; by this they judge that the kraken is at the bottom. They ſay this creature cauſes theſe unnatural ſhallows, and prevents their ſounding; but the fiſhermen are always glad to find them,

looking

looking upon them as a means of their taking abundance of fiſh. There are ſometimes twenty boats or more got together, and throwing out their lines at a moderate diſtance from each other. The only thing they then have to obſerve is, whether the depth continues the ſame, which they know by their lines, or whether it grows ſhallower, by their ſeeming to have leſs water: if this laſt be the caſe, they find that the kraken is raiſing himſelf nearer the ſurface, and then it is not time for them to ſtay any longer; they immediately leave off fiſhing, take to their oars, and get away as faſt as they can. When they have reached the uſual depth of the place, and find themſelves out of danger, they lie upon their oars, and in a few minutes after, they ſee this enormous monſter come up to the ſurface of the water: he there ſhews himſelf ſufficiently, though his whole body does not appear, which, in all likelihood, no human eye ever beheld (excepting the young of this ſpecies, which ſhall afterwards be ſpoken of): its back or upper part, which ſeems to be, in appearance, about an Engliſh mile and a half in circumference (ſome ſay more, but I chuſe the leaſt for the greateſt certainty,) looks at firſt like a number of ſmall iſlands, ſurrounded with ſomething that floats and fluctuates like ſea-weeds. Here and there a larger riſing is obſerved like ſand-banks, on which various kinds of ſmall fiſhes are ſeen continually leaping about, till they roll off into the water from the ſides of it: at laſt ſeveral bright points or horns appear, which grow thicker and thicker, the higher they riſe above the ſurface of the water; and ſometimes they ſtand up as high, and as large, as the maſts of middle-ſized veſſels. It ſeems theſe are the creature's arms, and it is ſaid, if they were to lay hold of the largeſt man of war, they would pull it down to the bottom. After this monſter has been on the ſurface of the water a ſhort time, it begins ſlowly

ſlowly to ſink again, and then the danger is as great as before, becauſe the motion of his ſinking cauſes ſuch a ſwell in the ſea, and ſuch an eddy or whirlpool, that it draws every thing within its vortex down with it.

The parts which are ſeen riſing at its pleaſure, and are called arms, are properly the tentacula, or feeling inſtruments called Horns, as well as arms: with theſe they move themſelves, and likewiſe gather in their food.

Beſides, for this laſt purpoſe, this creature has a ſtrong and peculiar ſcent, which it can emit at certain times, and by means of which it beguiles and draws other fiſh to come in heaps about it. This animal has another ſtrange property, known by the experience of many old fiſhermen. They obſerve, that for ſome months, he is continually eating, and in other months, always voids his excrements. During this evacuation, the ſurface of the water is coloured with the excrement, and appears quite thick and turgid. This muddineſs is ſaid to be ſo agreeable to the ſmell or taſte of other fiſhes, or to both, that they gather together from all parts to it, and keep for that purpoſe directly over the kraken: he then opens his arms, or horns, ſeizes and ſwallows his welcome gueſts, and converts them, after the due time, by digeſtion, into a bait for other fiſh of the ſame kind.

In the year 1680, a kraken, (perhaps a young and careleſs one) came into the water that runs between the rocks and cliffs in the pariſh of Alſtahoug, though the general cuſtom of that creature is to keep ſeveral leagues from land, and therefore of courſe they muſt die there. It happened, that its extended long arms, or antennæ, which this creature ſeems to uſe like the ſnail, in turning about, caught hold of ſome trees ſtanding near the water, which might eaſily have been torn up by the roots;

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but beſides this, as it was found afterwards, he entangled himſelf in ſome openings of the rock, and therein ſtuck ſo faſt, and hung ſo unfortunately, that he could not work himſelf out, but periſhed and putrified on the ſpot. The carcaſe, which was a long while decaying, and filled great part of that narrow channel, made it almoſt impaſſable by its intolerable ſtench.

The fiſhermen accidentally, and to their great ſurpriſe, fell into ſuch a ſpot in the water, as has been before deſcribed, full of a thick ſlime, almoſt like a moraſs. They immediately ſtrove to get out of this place, but they had not time to turn quick enough to ſave themſelves from one of the kraken's horns, which cruſhed the head of the boat ſo, that it was with great difficulty they ſaved their lives on the wreck, though the weather was as calm as poſſible; for theſe monſters, like the ſea-ſnake, never appear at other times.

The floating iſlands are nothing elſe but the kraken, which ſome ſea-faring people call ſoe-draulen, that is, ſae-trolden, ſae-miſchief.

The meduſa's heads are ſuppoſed, by ſome, to be the young of the great ſae-kraken; perhaps they are their ſmalleſt ovula; and it is believed this is the ſame meduſa's head, or ſtella-arboreſcens, of which Mr. Griffith Hughes treats in the philoſophical tranſactions. If the axiom be true, that greatneſs or littleneſs makes no change in the ſpecies, then this kraken muſt be of the polypus kind, notwithſtanding its enormous ſize.

The Norwegians are in general of a good appearance, tall, well made, and lively. There are ſome who pretend there is a difference in the inhabitants of Norway, according to their ſituation; and obſerve, that the peaſants, who live among the mountains, are generally taller than the reſt, and *have a* certain ſeverity in there countenance which commands

commands reſpect, and ſeems expreſſive of the ſtrength of their intellectual faculties. Along the coaſt the people, for the generality, are not ſo tall and robuſt; but on the contrary more corpulent and phlegmatic, and have a rounder viſage. This difference is obſerved by the officers in the militia, according to the ſeveral diſtricts of which their men are natives; and when they draw up their regiments, conſiſting of both ſorts, they can pretty well gueſs to which claſs each belongs.

The Norwegians are a very ſtrong, robuſt, and hardy people, and in ſome meaſure differ according to the ſituation they live in. About the rocks and cliffs, and in moſt parts of Norway, eſpecially on the mountains, the air they breathe is freſh, clear, and wholeſome: their plain and homely diet, their continual labour, which they are obliged to undergo both by ſea and land, and their cheerful diſpoſition, which is natural to moſt of the Norwegians, give them a conſtant ſeries of health; ſo that, I believe, a greater number of them, than of any other nation, exceed the age of an hundred years. They are inured to cold and hardſhips from their childhood; for, in the latter end of November, they run about bare-footed even upon the ice. The mountaineers, who daily go in the woods, have their beards often full of iſicles, and their boſoms filled with ſnow: and when their naked breaſts are occaſionally expoſed, they ſeem to be as hairy as their chins. On the higheſt mountains of Norway, which are covered with ſnow, where the horſes are of no ſervice, the peaſants are ſeen in great numbers, doing the work of horſes, and indeed they ſeem almoſt to equal thoſe animals in ſtrength. It is obſerved, when they have been in a profuſe ſweat, they have thrown themſelves, every half hour, upon the ſnow, to cool and refreſh themſelves, and have even ſucked it, to quench their thirſt. All this they undergo without the leaſt apprehenſion of a cold

or fever, and without murmuring or betraying any diſcontent. On the contrary, they go on ſinging merrily all the while, and hold out, for nine hours together, at the hardeſt labour imaginable, with incredible cheerfulneſs and alacrity. A remarkable inſtance of this may be ſeen in the iſlands near our coaſt, and thoſe we call the out-iſlands, where the peaſants, of both ſexes, aſſemble together by hundreds, I may ſay thouſands, about the middle of January, to make their winter-harveſt of the rich produce of the ocean. At this time every family takes with them five or ſix weeks proviſions, chiefly dried fiſh, and keep out at ſea all day, and a great part of the night by moonſhine, in open boats; and after that croud together by ſcores into little huts, where they hardly have room to lay themſelves down in their wet cloaths. Here they repoſe themſelves the remainder of the night, and the next morning return to the ſame laborious employment, with as much pleaſure and cheerfulneſs as if they were going to a merry-making. Even the weaker ſex are not exempt from theſe hardſhips any more than the men. The hair and eyes of the Norwegians are lighter than moſt other nations, and a dark complexion is as rare here, as a fair complexion in France or Italy. We ſee that the cold changes hares, partridges, and moſt of the Norwegian animals, from a dark or brown colour to the fineſt white. Farther from the equator, the black colour of the inhabitants is gradually loſt; they are pretty brown above the tropics; but we meet with none that are entirely white till we have gone a great way into the temperate zone, and at the extremities of theſe zones we find the faireſt complexions. The *blonde*, or flaxen complexion of the Daniſh women, ſtrikes the eye of the admiring traveller, and he can ſcarcely believe that the female he now beholds, and the African he lately ſaw, are of the ſame ſex. The northern people have generally light-grey or blue eyes,

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as well as light-coloured hair; but this muſt be underſtood with ſome limitations.

North of the Swedes and Norwegians, there is the Lapland nation, which differs greatly from them in manners, cuſtoms, and language. They are of a leſs ſtature, have a flatter viſage, and, in particular, a dark-brown complexion, and black hair. This ſhews, that where the temperate zone terminates, and the frigid commences, there the inhabitants loſe the fair complexion, and grow darker; as exceſſive heat darkens the ſkin, and gives the inhabitants of the torrid zone a tawny complexion. Hence we ſee, that two oppoſite cauſes, namely, extreme cold, and exceſſive heat, in this reſpect, produce the ſame effect.

The cold in Norway and Sweden by no means obſtructs the growth of the body, which is obvious by the compleat ſtature of the people of thoſe nations; but the Laplanders, Greenlanders, and Samoiddes, are all a ſhort, thick-ſet race, of a dark-brown complexion, which is certainly occaſioned by the cold, that is very intenſe in this climate.

As to the mental qualities and genius of the Norwegians, they are generally dextrous, briſk, penetrating, and ingenious, eſpecially in all kind of mechanic performances. This may be ſeen by the peaſants never employing any hatters, ſhoemakers, taylors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, ſmiths, or joiners; nor do they ever buy any goods in the towns; for all thoſe trades are exerciſed in every farm-houſe. They think a boy can never be a uſeful member of ſociety, nor a good man, without making himſelf maſter of all theſe.

The Norwegian peaſant is inſpired with a commendable ambition, which makes him ſtrive to live independent of others, and without being in any body's debt; and if his freehold be incumbered, he uſes his utmoſt efforts to recover it out of the hands

of a ſtranger. There are many peaſants who are not a little proud of being thought to be deſcended from the ancient nobility, and even the royal family. This ridiculous vanity often prevents them from marrying their children very advantageouſly, by ſtanding upon their blood and birth: and if a thing once appears in the eyes of a Norwegian, either honourable or ſhameful, he does not heſitate a moment which to chuſe; for they are fond of being reſpected and honoured to the higheſt degree; and the great complaiſance which they ſhew to others, is not without a view of being paid again in the ſame coin.

There is not a country in the world where the people are ſo hoſpitable, liberal, and willing to ſerve and oblige ſtrangers, as they are in Norway. A traveller is ſeldom ſuffered to pay for his lodging, which may partly proceed from the ſmall number that viſit theſe parts; therefore they think it a duty to treat the ſtranger as well as it is in their power, and look upon it as an honour done them, if he accepts of their civilities. Notwithſtanding all this, the peaſant never gives the upper end of the table to the greateſt gueſt that ever comes under his roof; for he thinks that place belongs to himſelf only. They keep open houſe for three weeks at Chriſtmas, and ſet out the beſt things their houſes afford, the table being ſpread and loaded with victuals the whole time.

The Norwegian peaſant's hoſpitality extends itſelf ſo far on Chriſtmas-Eve, as to invite the birds to be his gueſts; and therefore he hangs out at the barn-door, on a pole, an unthreſhed ſheaf of corn, which draws the ſparrows and other ſmall birds thither, where they feaſt and make merry.

In the eaſt country, or the other ſide of Filefield, they hardly know any thing of the diſeaſes which are common along the coaſt. The air in thoſe parts is much purer, drier, and lighter, and as healthful as in any part of Europe. The long and deep vallies

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are like ventilators or channels, through which the wind, as it were, runs in a current from one end to the other, and keeps the air always freſh and in motion. The mountains, or high grounds, are remarkable for the ſalubrity of the air; for moſt people die of old age there, without ever having experienced what it is to be ſick.

In order to compleat this natural review of Norway, ſome account ſhall be given of its preſent inhabitants, their genius, cuſtoms, &c. waving at the ſame time all idle enquiries about the origin of them, which here, as in regard to moſt other people, are obſcure, fabulous, and inconcluſive.

The Norwegians, of the middle and upper rank, live rather elegantly than otherwiſe; their low claſs poorly. A detail thereof can afford but little entertainment to a curious reader. They make their bread, in time of ſcarcity, of the bark of fir-trees, &c.

Thoſe who live in towns have nothing remarkable or particular in their dreſs: the peaſants indeed here, as in moſt other countries, do not trouble themſelves about faſhions and changes of modes. They have ſnow-ſcates, with which they run about on the ſnow, as faſt as they can on the ice, and ſwifter than a horſe can go. The generality of their houſes, built of timber, are mean and inconſiderable.

The Norwegians apply themſelves to commerce (but little to mechanic trades) agriculture, grazing, and breeding of cattle, cutting of wood, working in the mines, ſailing, fiſhing, and hunting.

The roots of the fir-trees, which, after the trees had been cut down, have ſtood ſeveral years in the ground, and imbibed the fatneſs of the ſoil, they burn for tar in the open fields, which is moſtly for exportation.

Many of the inhabitants of Norway have a comfortable ſubſiſtence from hunting, ſhooting, and bird-

catching;

catching; for every body is at liberty to purſue the game, eſpecially on the mountains, the heaths, and commons, and make plunder of the inoffenſive as well as of the hurtful beaſts, and of all ſorts of fowls. Their beſt markſmen live in the mountains; they uſe bows to kill thoſe creatures whoſe ſkins are valuable, for they are not damaged by flat arrows.

The nobility of Norway, which had been formerly very numerous and powerful, is now dwindled to a very ſmall number; for which this reaſon may be aſſigned, that a nobleman's eſtate there has not the privileges belonging to the demeſne of nobility, longer than it is inhabited by the lord in perſon.

In regard to their poſſeſſions in Norway, the law, or right of odel, prevails amongſt its inhabitants, which makes every freeholder think himſelf to be as good as a nobleman. There is a peculiarity in their penal laws not unworthy of a place here. In ancient times the Norwegians made uſe of a remarkable cataract for the execution of rebels, traitors, leaders of ſedition, and ſuch peſtilential diſturbers of ſociety; there they were thrown down alive, in order that they ſhould be daſhed to pieces, by the impetuoſity of the waters againſt the projected points of rocks: and thereby periſh in a tumult, ſimilar to that to which they had wickedly excited others. This ſort of puniſhment, notwithſtanding its ſeverity, muſt be allowed to have been both emblematical and proper.

TRAVELS
INTO
RUSSIA,
BY
COUNT ALGAROTTI,
IN THE YEAR 1739.

THE author of the travels, which I am now about to abridge, has been reckoned by all good judges of Italian literature, to be one of the fairest ornaments of Modern Italy. He has produced several works of great reputation, and is justly esteemed a most lively, entertaining and agreeable writer.

After sailing nineteen days, without meeting with any accident, we, at length, arrived in the Sound. The sea grows so narrow between Denmark and Sweden, that it is not wider than the Thames at Gravesend. This Strait differs from all others in no current being observed in it, unless it be agitated by a north or a south wind; but in return, either of these, not meeting with any resistance, forms instantly a very rapid one, according to its impulse. The coasts of Sweden are wild and naked; on the contrary, those of Denmark, that is to say, of Zealand, are smiling, and well cultivated. Surely, if they had always been so agreeable, the Teutons would not have abandoned them to seek elsewhere for settlements, and cut out work for our marines.

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The truth is, that they may now vie with even the fields of England. Their tufted groves, the gentle ſlope of their hills, their meadows, which deſcend to the ſea, and the emerald green which ſhades the whole, form a moſt pleaſing ſight.

The magnificent caſtle of Cronenburgh, riſes in a pictureſque manner upon the ſhore: it is covered with copper, and, by means of its citadel, it gives laws to the Sound. This caſtle ſeems to look down with diſdain upon poor Helſenberg, which, on the oppoſite ſhore, returns the ſalute to the ſhips, that, on entering into this Streight, do homage to the Daniſh Dardenelles. This wretched little town is not, however, deſtitute of glory: in the time of Charles XII. ſhe ſaw from her towers Swediſh peaſants, commanded by Steinbock, cut in pieces the beſt troops of Denmark. There is always in this road a Daniſh frigate on guard: ſhe collects the tolls which amount to near thirty thouſand pounds ſterling a year. The toll which each veſſel pays is not very conſiderable; it is the number of ſhips that make the amount. It is computed that the number annually is about two thouſand ſix hundred Swediſh. A thouſand Dutch, who, from their marſhes, go to ſeek in the north for iron, planks, pitch, hemp, corn, and in general almoſt every neceſſary; four hundred Engliſh, and a few from the ports of France, Lubeck, and Dantzick. Laſtly, the Ruſſians, who like the Americans, a few years ago, ranked navition among the arts of another world, ſend two or three.

We paſſed by Copenhagen, and counted in the port upwards of thirty ſhips of war upon the ſtocks. The King's new palace ſtands conſpicuous in the middle of the city. We ſailed almoſt in the middle of two nations, which are generally at variance. The Swedes, born in a barren mountainous country, full of mines of iron, muſt naturally be fitteſt

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for military exerciſes; and the Danes, who inhabit a number of iſlands, and who poſſeſs Norway, a kingdom ſituated upon the ocean, and addicted ſolely to navigation, muſt have the advantage therein. Beſides four thouſand ſeamen whom the King of Denmark keeps at Copenhagen, Norway can furniſh him ſixteen thouſand on an emergency.

You know how much the Swedes have of late years, applied themſelves to the ſea, to manufactures and commerce. Free countries of which Sweden now is one, are the only proper climates for thoſe arts. Your parliament has great reaſon to be alarmed at the new regulation lately publiſhed at Stockholm, which prohibits the importation of all foreign manufactures: ſo that if England continues to take iron from the Swedes, inſtead of an hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling, ſhe will have with them a paſſive trade, which will coſt her upwards of three hundred thouſand every year.

Among ſeveral regulations made by the States of Sweden to encourage the maritime commerce of their country, I will inſtance to you only that which allows officers of the King's ſhips to take employment on board of merchant ſhips to exerciſe themſelves in navigation, and continue to be uſeful to the republick; which is of a piece with that other, ſo ancient among them, whereby all their ſoldiers are huſbandmen during peace. Each province has its regiments formed of the inhabitants of the country, and the government gives to the officers a houſe and a portion of land, ſo that they live amidſt their ſoldiers, as an Abbot among his Monks; they call them together, make them go through their exerciſes, and review them at regular ſtated times.

We dropped anchor within a mile of the port of Revel. The garriſon conſiſts of three regiments. No ſhips are built here: they are only careened and ſheathed. Both here, and in Denmark, the uni-

form of the ſailors, as well as that of the ſoldiers, has a very fine effect. Notwithſtanding the ſhips of war, the admiralty, the garriſon, the fortifications, and the artillery, the people bleſs the government. The peaſants here are ſlaves, as in Poland and Ruſſia; their owner ſells them, like the cattle which they rear. Accordingly, it is not ſaid here, ſuch an one has ſo much income; but, ſuch an one has ſo many thouſand peaſants, which are reckoned to bring a rouble each, per annum, into the treaſury of their owners. Humanity ſhudders, and is incenſed, at the appearance of theſe wretches, who ſeem like ſkeletons in rags.

Corn is very plentiful throughout all Livonia, and perfect in its quality. The Swedes, the Danes, and the Dutch, fetch it away in large quantities; and theſe laſt, among other commodities, bring, in exchange for it, a great deal of ſalt, which they fetch out of the Mediterranean. There is, likewiſe, a very great conſumption of it in Ruſſia; the common food of the ſoldiers, and of the generality of the people there, being bread and ſalt.

We anchored within cannon-ſhot of Cronſlot, a caſtle which defends the entrance of the port. It is ſituated at the month of the Neva, which falling into the lake Ladoga, after having bathed the walls of Peterſburg, empties itſelf into the gulph. The Czar had no ſooner formed the deſign of founding Peterſburgh, than he ſaw the importance of Cronſlot, which is its firſt out-work; and he accordingly raiſed it in ſuch a manner, that few places in the world can be compared to it. Moſt of the cannons which defend Cronſlot are of iron; but ſo neatly made, and ſo well burniſhed, that they look like ſteel. A magnificent canal is now finiſhing, the keys of which are of ſtone that is brought from the neighbourhood of Narva, and which is truly a work worthy of the Romans. It is wide enough

for two large ſhips to paſs conveniently a-breaſt, and its depth is in proportion: it is upwards of a mile and a half long. At its extremity will be dry docks, for ſhips of war. The Czar, who planned this undertaking, had therein two capital objects, the one, to provide for the preſervation of the ſhips, which rot in the freſh water of the Neva; the other, by drawing them thus upon land, to ſecure them againſt any bombardment.

You know that the marine was the favourite object of Peter the Great. He uſed to ſay that an Engliſh admiral is greater than a Czar. Beſides the numerous advantages, of which navigation is the ſource, what made this Mediterranean prince particularly fond of it, was, perhaps, likewiſe, that his creative genius found more room to exert itſelf in this branch than in any other.

Every prince who has men, can ſoon make ſoldiers of them. A labourer, a peaſant, becomes eaſily accuſtomed to marches, to heat, to cold, to the fatigues and exerciſes of war. Sailors are not ſo ſpeedily created; they muſt have been habituated almoſt from their very infancy to the air of the ſea, which made a very ſenſible gentleman ſay, that a marine was the only thing a great prince could not make.

The Czar aſſigned to the admiralty an income of three hundred thouſand pounds ſterling; an immenſe ſum in a country where the government does with two ſhillings what it would be impoſſible to get done in England for a guinea.

Peter the Great built one hundred and fifty galleys ſuitable to the ſhores of Peterſburgh, and can carry off thirty thouſand men, who caſt anchor every night, land where they are leaſt expected, over-run a province, and lay it under contribution. The expedition ended, they re-embark, and begin again in another quarter. Sometimes they tranſport

their veſſels from one water to another, over a ſ of land; as was practiſed by the ancients on ſever occaſions, and particularly after the example Mahomet II. at the ſiege of Conſtantinople.

The Swedes can certify whether theſe Ruſſia galleys are formidable: they have ſeen them ravag their rich mines of Norkoping, the whole coaſt Gothland and Sudermania, and ſhew themſelv even before Stockholm.

The Ruſſians build ſhips of oak, which is tw ſummers upon the road before it arrives. It come ready cut from the kingdom of Caſan, goes a litt way up the Wolga, then the Tuertza, paſſ through a canal into the ſea, from thence into th Meſta; and, by means of the Volcova, falls into canal, which conveys it into the lake Ladoga, fro whence it deſcends, at laſt from the Neva to Pe terſburgh. I ſaw in this port a ſloop built at Caſan from whence it came by the rivers I have juſt men tioned, which join the Caſpian ſea to the Baltic Formerly the wood was uſed as ſoon as it arrived Now it is left for ſeveral years in vaſt magazine open on all ſides like cages, that the air may pene trate into it. During the froſts they are covere with coarſe ſail-cloths to defend the wood from th inclemency of the air.

Seven months of the year one travels upon th Neva in barks, and the other five months upo ſledges. The Czar had one of theſe in the ſhap of a wherry. When the wind was eaſt or weſt, h went or came upon the ice with ſails, carrying i that manner his orders from Peterſburgh to Cronſlot and from Cronſlot to Peterſburgh. He guided hi ſledge with a pole pointed with iron, like to thoſ which are uſed upon mount Cenis. By this mean he had the pleaſure of ſailing even upon land. Bu the greateſt ſatisfaction he ever felt in his life, wa *when* he ſailed up the Neva in triumph, after having

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beat the Swediſh fleet at Gango in 1714; leading in his train the Admiral priſoner, with a great part of his ſhips. We then really beheld the completion of his works: a nation, which, but a few years before, had not ſo much as a ſingle ſloop in the Baltic, was become ſovereign of that ſea.

After having ſailed ſome hours in the midſt of the hideous and ſilent wood through which the Neva runs; behold, the river turns at once, and the ſcene changing in an inſtant, we ſee before us the imperial city. On either ſhore, ſumptuous edifices grouped together; turrets with gilded ſpires riſing here and there like pyramids; ſhips, which by their maſts and floating ſtreamers, mark the ſeparation of the ſtreets. When we were in the city, we no longer found it ſo ſuperb as it ſeemed to us from a diſtance: however, the ſituation of a city, built upon the borders of a great river, and formed of different iſlands, which give room for a variety of points of view, and effects of optics, cannot but be fine.

There reigns in this capital, a kind of baſtard architecture, which partakes of the Italian, the French, and the Dutch: this laſt is, however, the moſt prevalent, and it is no wonder. The Czar's firſt ſtudies were in Holland, and it was at Saardam that this new Prometheus took the fire with which he animated his nation. It ſeems likewiſe to have been ſolely in remembrance of Holland, that he planted rows of trees along the ſtreets, and interſected them with canals, which certainly are not of the ſame uſe here as at Amſterdam and Utrecht.

Ruſſia abounds principally in pot-aſhes, leather, flax, hemp, pitch, iron, rhubarb, and timber. About ninety Engliſh ſhips come every year to Peterſburgh: it is they that carry on the greateſt trade. They carry thither tin, lead, hardware, indigo, campeachy-wood, roch-allum, and woollen-cloth, in ſuch quantity, that it is commonly ſaid the Ruſſian

army is cloathed with Engliſh cloth. The amounts to the value of one hundred and fifty ſand pounds ſterling. They take, in exchang hundred thouſand pounds worth of goods country; ſo that the balance is fifty thouſand in favour of Ruſſia. Very few Dutch go ſo far terſburgh. They do their buſineſs generally at and Riga. Beſides corn, wood, and hemp, th honey and wax which come from the Ukraine beſides ſalt, they leave in payment woollen-ſtu ſpices. This laſt article is of very great impo eſpecially in the north, and the ballance b theſe two nations is thought to be equal.

The trade of Ruſſia with Sweeden is enti the advantage of the former. The Ruſſian niſh Sweden with very many furs, and quant corn of the produce of Eſthonia; whilſt the hardly any thing from the Swedes, contenting ſelves with their own iron, though of an i quality. Ruſſia ſells alſo furs to Poland, to ſiderable amount, and makes, in every reſpe moſt of its neighbourhood. As to France, t very little direct trade between theſe two n and nothing is more uncommon than to ſee a ſhip in theſe ſeas, which however does not p there being an incredible quantity of French modities in Ruſſia. France draws from hen means of her wines, her rich ſtuffs, her lace ſnuff-boxes, her millenary wares, and other ing gewgaws, which ſerve to feed the luxury Czarina's court, all the gold that the Engliſh at Peterſburgh.

Nothing more ſumptuous than the high c this court: eſpecial care is taken at Lyons gold and ſilver by whole ounces into the tiſſ tended for Ruſſia. It would be difficult to mine whether this oſtentation is the effect government of women, who are naturally fo *ſhew* and dreſs, rather than the conſequence

adminiſtration of foreigners; who, by this means, impoveriſh the natives of the country. The fact is, that it began in the time of Catherine; that it increaſed under Peter II. who was but a child; and that it is now carried to the higheſt pitch. Things were far otherwiſe in the life of the Czar, who, with the arts and manufactures, had imbibed in Holland the love of frugality. The Boyards, who are obliged to ſpend every year a great part of their income in laces and cloaths, uſed formerly, by the Sovereign's command, to build a ſhip. In nations whoſe own products ſuffice for their luxury, that luxury excites induſtry, makes money circulate, attracts it from other people, and thus is of manifeſt utility; but among thoſe where it is only tranſplanted, where it cannot be kept up but by the induſtry of foreigners, ſumptuary laws become indiſpenſable, if one would not ſee all the money go ſpeedily out of the country. Accordingly Sweden and Denmark have recourſe to them, as to the only remedy; and it ſeems as if Ruſſia could not do better than imitate their example.

Of all the nations of Europe the Ruſſian is the only one that trades by land with the Chineſe; and alſo the only one from which theſe laſt take goods in exchange for theirs: they do not deliver them to any other but for real bullion. However, what they do take conſiſts only in peltries, which are neceſſary in the northern parts of that empire. To go from Peterſburgh to Pekin, to make purchaſes there, and to return back, the caravan employs three years. It paſſes through Tobolſki, the capital of Siberia, where it ſtops. It afterwards turns off through the country of the Tonguſki of Irtuſki, and croſſes the lake Baikal, and the deſart which leads to the great wall. It is received in the deſart by a Chineſe Mandarine, at the head of ſome hundreds of ſoldiers, who eſcort it to Pekin. The Empreſs of Ruſſia is always pre-

ſent at the auctions of Chineſe goods, whi
held in a great hall of the palace called the
When a piece of ſilk, a piece of porcelain,
other thing is put up to ſale, the Empreſs her
ten bids for it; every one of her ſubjects is th
lowed to contradict her, each endeavours to o
her, each wiſhes to hear his name proclaim
ſome lot or other, and he who pays deareſt
thinks he has well employed the day. We ou
were permitted to be of the number of purcha

This is not the only, nor the moſt conſic
branch of trade that redounds to the profit
Empreſs. Rhubarb, ſalt, potaſhes, a great p
the hemp, half the iron, beer, brandy, and
are ſold and bought for her account; or,
is the ſame, for that of the empire. The dri
houſes and publick baths depend alſo on the g
ment. The credulity of the people occaſions
concourſe of thoſe drinking-houſes; and if th
not ſo much frequented as in England, the
are almoſt as much ſo as in Turkey. The
which ariſe from theſe different objects form
of the revenues of the ſtate. The reſt of it
ſiſts in cuſtoms, tolls, and a capitation of ſ
copicks, or three ſhillings and two-pence ſterli
head. The number of people in the empir
reckoned at ſeventeen millions of ſouls, exclu
the conquered provinces, which perhaps do no
tain one million. This is but a handful of m
an empire much larger than that of the Ro
The revenues of the empire are eſtimated at
millions of roubles, or about three millions ſte

Reſpecting the military ſtate of Ruſſia, nothing is finer than the three regiments of guards, *Prebaſenſki*, *Imailoſki*, and *Simoneſki*. They compoſe a body of about ten thouſand men, ſtout, tall, and at the ſame time very active. Their uniform is green, and the grenadiers wear helmets of boiled leather, ſurrounded with creſts of feathers after the Roman faſhion. The guard of the ſacred perſon of the Empreſs is entruſted to them; and like the Prætorian bands of old, and the janiſſaries now, they give and take away the empire at their pleaſure. At the death of the Czar Peter, he left the rich inheritance of two regiments of guards, fifty of field infantry, thirty of dragoons, and ſixty-ſeven others, called Garriſon Regiments, in all, one hundred and ninety thouſand men. The Empreſs, who now reigns, has not let her patrimony diminiſh. She has augmented the body of guards, to whom ſhe owes her ſovereignty, with a new regiment of three battalions and five ſquadrons, who, created by her, are wholly devoted to her. Ruſſia had not any curiaſſiers: this Princeſs has raiſed three regiments of them, as alſo twenty of militia to guard the lines of the Ukraine. Certain it is, that there does not ſeem any nation fitter for war than the Ruſſians. Deſertion is abſolutely unknown among them; a circumſtance owing to their attachment to their religion, of which they know they would not find even a veſtige in other countries. Their patience under adverſity, and untoward events, will bear any trial, as will alſo their docility. Accuſtomed in their excurſions at home to change inceſſantly their climate; they are ſtrangers to the ſeveral diſtempers which new countries and long marches occaſion elſewhere. It is the cuſtom of this country to throw their children from an oven, in which they are kept a certain time, into cold water, or among ice. By this means they become inured to

heat and cold, and are rendered more invulnerable to the effects of the weather, than Achilles was to thoſe of ſpears and arrows; yet every foot-ſoldier, beſides his arms, carries always a cloak, a veſtment almoſt continually neceſſary in theſe frozen regions. They twiſt it up and paſs it from the ſhoulder to the oppoſite hip in the manner that the ſword-belt was formerly worn. In caſe of need they unfurl it, and wrapping themſelves up in it they ſleep upon the ſnow comfortably.

Neither is there need of much cookery here to feed the ſoldiers. A certain quantity of meal is diſtributed among them, and as ſoon as they are encamped, they dig ovens in the ground, where they bake their bread, which they make themſelves. When it is intended to treat them, they have a ſort of very hard biſcuit, which they break into little bits, and boil with ſalt and a few herbs, which they find every where. The greateſt part of their time they are ſtrictly abſtemious, becauſe though diſpenſed from the lents and faſts, which engroſs more than half the year with the Greeks, they nevertheleſs chuſe to faſt. Such ſoldiers would have been fit for Cromwell; who it is ſaid, ordered a faſt, when he was in want of proviſions No doubt Machiavel, who obſerved in Switzerland many remains of the manners of the ancients, would have found at leaſt as many among the Ruſſians. In the laſt war againſt Sweden, the Ruſſian ſoldiers built gallies, as Labienus's legionaries did ſhips for Cæſar's expedition to England. In a word, every Ruſſian ſoldier is a carpenter in caſe of need. Not ſo uſeful are their cavalry. This vaſt empire does not produce horſes fit to mount the cuiraſſiers; they muſt be fetched from Holſtein: thoſe of the country are not ſtrong enough even for dragoons. With regard to light-horſe the Calmucks and Coſſacks fill them as abundantly. The government can raiſe ſixty thouſand of them; and though

though it gives them no other pay, than leave to plunder the enemies country, one may be perfectly at eaſe about their ſubſiſtence. They are of great uſe to go upon a diſcovery, to ſteal a march upon the enemy, or a change of poſition, and to moleſt and harraſs them inceſſantly.

As to the artillery, upon which the event of war now principally depends, they have brought both the making and managing of it to great perfection.

At Syſterbeck, not far from Peterſburgh, there is a very fine manufactory of arms eſtabliſhed by Peter the Great; and towards Moſcow there is another. There are alſo in Ruſſia two very conſiderable trains of artillery: one of them is placed in the Ukraine, and the other on this ſide the empire. The fortified places are alſo abundantly provided with cannon.

As to the policy of the Ruſſian Princes they have managed ſo, that the ſons of the greateſt lords begin with bearing arms, like common ſoldiers; and ſerve as ſuch an apprenticeſhip to the military. One day Mr. Rondeau ſhewed me the ſon of a *knees*, or lord, ſtanding centinel at the door of his houſe. Theſe young gentlemen are ſubject to the ſame puniſhments as the other ſoldiers, to irons and to the knout, in caſe of need.

The foreign officers in the Ruſſian ſervice, and eſpecially Germans, are counted by thouſands. Four diſtinguiſhed themſelves particularly in this great number; there are Loewendahl, Keith, Laſcy, and Munich. To Count Munich, the empire is obliged for eſtabliſhing the college of Cadets. Peterſburgh owes likewiſe to him, the eaſe with which it is ſupplied with proviſions. This great city, conſiſting of an hundred and twenty thouſand inhabitants, is ſituated at the extremity of vaſt moraſſes, and an immenſe wood, which covering above an hundred leagues of ground, reaches to Moſcow. It draws the greateſt part of the proviſions neceſſary for

life from the country which lies along the banks of the Volcova, and in the neighbourhood of Novogorod, where the ſoil is leſs barren. In the winter, when all is frozen, ſledges come regularly to Peterſburgh, by the lake and the Neva, and bring to it plenty of every thing that is wanted. The caſe is different in ſummer: barks cannot fall down ſo eaſy on account of the weſt winds, which reign almoſt conſtantly here, and of the terrible ſqualls to which the lake is ſubject, impediments which have occaſioned more than once even a famine at Peterſburgh, and were the cauſe, that when the Czar founded this city, upwards of an hundred thouſand men periſhed for want of food. Munich has remedied this inconvenience, by completing along the borders of the lake the inner canal, begun by the Czar, to join the Volcova to the Neva, by means of which the barks now arrive in ſummer, as regularly at Peterſburgh as the ſledges in winter.

Ruſſia has nothing to fear from the north, being herſelf the extremity of the world on that ſide. The north winds, ſo fatal in other countries, where they blow colds, coughs, and diſorders of the ſtomach, are here ſalutary. It is they, which, freezing-over the marſhes and the rivers, make convenient ways in the midſt of depths, and of the worſt of roads, and open in winter the interior commerce of this vaſt empire. The Ruſſians then ſet out in a ſledge, with their merchandize and proviſions, for ſeveral days, and talk of going ſeven or eight thouſand werſts [*one hundred and five are equal to a degree of the equator*] with as much eaſe, as we ſhould ſpeak of going from London to York.

To the eaſt Ruſſia borders upon China; and if ſhe ſhould ever chance to have a war with this empire, one might well ſay of her,

Imbellem avertis Romanis arcibus Indum.

The

The Tartars and the Kalmucks, whom ſhe incloſes as it were in her boſom, are no longer in the leaſt to be feared by her; but ſerve her as a buckler, or advanced guard. The Caſpian ſea, which it is almoſt impoſſible to navigate for want of ports and places to anchor at, ſeparates, together with ſome deſarts, Ruſſia from Perſia. Georgia, a country which profeſſes the Greek religion, likewiſe ſerves the Ruſſians for a boundary on that ſide; and in caſe of a rupture, would not fail to ſide with them. At all events, however, the ſterility and the bad air of the Perſian Provinces ſituated along the Caſpian ſea, which would neceſſarily be the theatre of war, ſeem to inſure a long peace between theſe two empires.

Ruſſia is equally ſecure on the part of the Turks. They cannot attack her on the ſide of the Ukraine, which is the moſt ſouthern, the fineſt, and the moſt fertile province in Europe; they are ſeparated from it by an immenſe deſart, where no water is to be found. I do not ſpeak of Poland, which lies weſt of Ruſſia: a country that has neither troops nor ſtrong places, and where there muſt be the unanimity of a whole diet to paſs a law. The Swedes then are the moſt formidable neighbours Ruſſia has; but Ruſſia has great conveniences to make war againſt Sweden: whereas Sweden cannot attack Ruſſia, but with many difficulties. From which you will conclude, that if the ſucceſſion to the crown of Ruſſia ſhould be ſettled on a ſolid foundation, and an active prince ſhould fill that throne, nothing will be able to ſtop him in his career of conqueſt.

We returned towards Germany by Dantzick, and after travelling from thence, a vaſt extent of country ſo entirely ſandy, that an Antediluvian would maintain it to have been formerly the bed of the ſea; we coaſted the fertile banks of the Oder, which, like the Duna, conveys into the Baltic ſuch fine maſts for

that eye can behold; full of people, and of ind
We arrived at Leipzig at the time that prepar
were making for the fair; almoſt all German
half of Poland and Hungary meet there to pr
themſelves, as well with manufactures of the
try, as of foreigners, whoſe productions are
mitted thither by way of Hamburgh, from w
Germany has a ſight of the ocean.

Another continual ſource of riches for this
torate, is the ſilver mines of Freyberg: they
leaſt upon a par with thoſe of Hartz, poſſeſ
common by the Elector of Hanover and the
of Wolfenbuttle, and are the richeſt that are k
in Europe, and yield yearly a neat produce
hundred thouſand pounds ſterling. From L
we went to Potzdam, the military noviciate of
ſia: it is the garriſon of that ſuperb regiment, w
for the comelineſs and ſtature of the ſoldiers,
be called the flower of the human race. It is
poſed of, including the ſupernumeraries, four
ſand giants of all religions and all countries
there is not among them ſchiſm or contro
Here ten and twenty thouſand dollars are not ſcr

important places, are, as well as that of Berlin, in the beſt condition, and furniſhed with a numerous artillery. The horſes deſtined to military ſervice are trained to it long beforehand, and diſtributed in the ſeveral provinces, where they do not remain idle; and where they are kept always ready to change the works of Ceres for thoſe of Mars. In ſhort, the King of Pruſſia can bring upon his frontiers an army of fifty thouſand men, with all neceſſaries, in much leſs time than is requiſite for one of our Italian undertakers to bring out an opera.

Though the department of war is his principal occupation, and all that ſurround him is military, his cares do not leſs extend to the other parts of government. His finances are regulated with the moſt perfect œconomy: people talk every where of his treaſure. At Berlin, a vaſt apartment adjoining to the royal treaſury is full of tables, chairs, branches, candleſticks, lamps, and baluſtrades of ſilver; every thing there is of that metal, as formerly in the palaces of the Kings of Mexico. He has repeopled the territories which he poſſeſſes in Pruſſia and Lithuania, heretofore ravaged by the plague, by ſending thither colonies purchaſed in the catholic countries of Germany, where proteſtants have not the free exerciſe of their religion: he has eſtabliſhed breeds of horſes which are in high repute. Potſdam owes to him almoſt the whole of its exiſtence: he has likewiſe increaſed Berlin by more than half; and the new ſuburb, or rather the new city which he has added to it, is called, from the name of its founder, Williamſtadt.

Agriculture is not the leaſt of his cares: in the ſame manner as the Czar ſent young gentlemen into foreign countries to learn their politeneſs, or maritime affairs; the King of Pruſſia ſends them into the country, there to ſtudy ploughing, and the manner of cultivating land. Accordingly this art, the

moſt

moſt important of all, encouraged and honoured by the ſovereign, makes here conſiderable progreſs.

You know that the proteſtants, driven from France, carried to Berlin their manufactures and arts. That of working in ſteel is highly perfected there; and the cloths which in that city are made, eſpecially the blue ones, are extremely beautiful.

The whole of the country to Hamburgh is a ſandy ſoil.

Virgil's *ſic vos non vobis* may properly be applied to the Engliſh, for all the pains they took to open the trade of the Caſpian. Ruſſia gathers the fruit of the tree they planted, and they are now reſtricted to the privilege of buying at ſecond hand at Peterſburgh, the raw ſilks of Perſia. Thus the provinces of Shirvan, Ghilan, and others, bathed by the Caſpian, are now of more ſervice to Ruſſia, than when they were under her dominion.

The reſtitution procured them great advantages, ſuch as an exemption from all duties, as well on what they carry into the ports of the Caſpian, as on what they export from thence, and the privilege of ſelling their various commodities at Iſpahan with the ſame immunities as the Americans enjoy at Zulpa. Since that treaty, a Ruſſian Conſul, who is allowed to have a guard of ſoldiers of his own nation, reſides at Reſched, the capital of Ghilan. With theſe ſeveral advantages, and the ports ſhe has in the Caſpian Ruſſia, may hereafter become poſſeſſed of the trade of Perſia, the Engliſh having taught her how to navigate that ſea.

TRAVELS

FROM

SAINT PETERSBURGH

To different Parts of ASIA.

By JOHN BELL, Esq.

Journey from Saint Peterſburg to Iſpahan: With an Embaſſy from Peter the Great to the Sophy of Perſia, Anno 1715.

THE Ambaſſador's train: himſelf, Arternii Petrovicti Valenſky; G. C. Venigerkind, Secretary; Jaques de Villette, Cap. Engineer; M. P. Kartzoff, and A. J. Lopuchin, the author of this journal, gentlemen of the embaſſy; Hylarion, a Monk, prieſt; V. Kurdeffsky, A. Tulkatzoff, and D. Petritz, interpreters; V. Shadayoff, and A. Buchtaryoff, clerks; with a band of muſic, carpenters, ſmiths, taylors, footmen, &c. amounting in all to above an hundred perſons, beſides a troop of twenty-five dragoons for our eſcort from Aſtrachan to Iſpahan.

On the 15th of July, 1715, I ſet out from Saint Peterſburgh. That city, which has ſince grown ſo conſiderable, was then in its infancy, having been founded ten or eleven years before by that truly-great man, Peter I. The adjacent country is generally covered with woods, conſiſting of various

kinds of pines, birch, alder, aſpine, &c. To the ſouthward, eſpecially along the ſhore towards Peterhoff, the country in ſummer is very pleaſant, with country-ſeats, corn-fields and meadows interſperſed. The woods on each ſide the Neva are ſtored with game, ſuch as hares, wild deer, bears, wolves; the laſt are ſo bold, that I have known them, in the night-time, carry off a dog from a man's foot, in croſſing the river on the ice. Few places can boaſt a greater variety of wild-fowl. As ſoon as the ice melts, vaſt flocks of water-fowl come hither from the Caſpian ſea, and other ſouthern regions, to hatch. Theſe conſiſt of ſwans, geeſe, a variety of wild-ducks, teal, &c.

We followed the banks of the Neva; at night turning our horſes to graſs, and laying in our waggons. On the Volchova we left our horſes, and putting our waggons and carriages on board barques, went up the river: the banks are covered with many villages and fruitful corn-fields, intermixed with natural woods. We found, as we went along, plenty of fiſh and country proviſions.

The 19th we arrived at Novogorod, in which town are many well-built churches, and a great number of monaſteries in the neighbourhood, pleaſantly ſituated. The 22d we ſailed up the river to the lake Ilmen. The town of Valday is pleaſantly ſituated, adjoining a large lake of the ſame name, in the middle of which is an iſland, where ſtands a monaſtery. The country in the neighbourhood is hilly, exhibiting a beautiful variety of plain and riſing grounds.

At Viſhnoy Volotzoke is a canal of conſiderable extent, cut by Peter I. which opens a communication by water between Peterſburgh and all the places on the Volga, and many other parts of Ruſſia; an equal encouragement to trade and agriculture. The 29th, we came to Tweer, a populous and trading town on the banks of the Volga. That famous

famous river, after viſiting in its courſe to the ſouth-eaſt, many fruiful countries, diſcharges itſelf into the Caſpian ſea, ſixty werſts below Aſtrachan: and in all this long courſe there is not a ſingle cataract to impede the navigation. As to fiſh, no river in the world can afford greater variety, better of their kind, nor in larger quantities. Here we taſted the ſterlet, a fiſh much and generally eſteemed. It is of the ſturgeon kind.

At Gorodna, a large village, is ſeen a charming landſcape of the windings of the river. From Kleen alſo to Moſcow the country is pleaſant, having many tufts of wood of unequal bigneſs ſcattered among the corn-fields, that contribute to beautify the country, which had no great appearance of fertility. From Ffe-ſwatzky, ſeven werſts from Moſcow, is a view of that city; and, at this diſtance, few in the world make a finer appearance; for it ſtands on a riſing ground, and contains many ſtately churches and monaſteries, whoſe ſteeples and cupolas are covered either with copper gilt, or tin-plates, which ſhine in the ſun like gold and ſilver.

We ſtayed in Moſcow about ſeven weeks, having many things to prepare for ſo long a journey. This city, ſtanding on an eminence, commands a beautiful view of the ſurrounding country, adorned with woods, monaſteries, and gentlemens' ſeats. The river Moſcow runs almoſt through it, which falling into the Volga, opens ſo extenſive a communication, that trade flouriſhes here conſiderably.

The city is fortified with a wall and ditch. The palace is an old irregular building, with many very ſpacious apartments: here in a lofty tower is the largeſt bell in the world, weighing ten thouſand poods, or one hundred and ſixty tons: there is a cathedral church, and an arſenal well ſtored with braſs cannon, mortars, &c.

The

The great plenty of provifions at this place ſurprized me not a little. I found fruits of different kinds, excellent melons, water-melons, &c.

Sept. 21, we ſhipped our baggage on board ſix barques. The 16th of October we came to Kaſſimova, formerly the reſidence of a Tartar Prince; there are a few Tartars yet left. One of them, a decent man, had newly killed a horſe, which they intended to eat, preferring it to beef. The 25th we entered the Volga, which is here a mighty ſtream. November the 3d. we reached Zaback-zar: in this country are caught the beſt and largeſt falcons in the world, much eſteemed for their ſtrength and beauty, particularly by the Turks and Perſians, who purchaſe them very dear. The Ruſſians take few young hawks from the neſt, preferring the old ones, which they learn very dexterouſly to fly at ſwans, geeſe, cranes, or herons. The Tarters fly them at antelopes and hares: I have ſeen them take a wild-duck out of the water, when nothing of her could be perceived but the bill, which ſhe was obliged to put up for air. The 5th we reached Cazan, where we were obliged to winter from the froſt ſetting in.

Cazan is ſeven hundred thirty-five werſts from Moſcow by land, but much more by water; the ſituation is ſtrong, and is defended by a caſtle. The country adjacent is very pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, rye, barley, oats, and ſeveral kinds of pulſe. The woods to the South and Weſt conſiſt of ſtately oaks ſufficient to ſupply all the navies in the world; and from hence Peterſburgh is abundantly ſupplied with timber for all the purpoſes of ſhip-building, by an eaſy conveyance all the way by water. The woods to the North and Eaſt, which are of prodigious extent, conſiſt of trees of all ſorts.

In the ſpring, when the ſnow melts, the Volga overflows all the low grounds ſometimes to a great diſtance: the mud brought down by the ſtream has the

the ſame effect in fertilizing as the Nile. The woods afford abundance of game and water-fowl. At Cazan we found good beef, mutton, and tame poultry, and proviſions of all kinds very reaſonable: they have a conſiderable manufactory of Ruſſia leather.

The cold here is more intenſe than at Peterſburgh, though it is five or ſix degrees farther South. In going about three miles from town in a clear day, I had my face, fingers, and toes frozen.

The 4th of June 1716, we left Cazan in eight barques, and rowed down the river with great velocity. The 25th we landed at Saratof, about eight hundred and fifty werſts from Cazan: here we croſſed the river to viſit a great horſe-market, held by the Kalmuck Tartars: the buyers came from different parts of Ruſſia: all the wealth of theſe people is their flocks: the horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy; they are ſold at this fair at from five to fifteen crowns: they have few camels, but many dromedaries. On long marches all their proviſions conſiſt of cheeſe, or rather dried curd, made up into little balls, which they drink, when pounded and mixed with water. If this kind of food fails, they have always many ſpare horſes, which they kill and eat.

July 1ſt, we put off from Saratof. On the iſlands of the Volga I obſerved great quantities of liquorice growing wild. The 13th we arrived ſafe at Aſtrachan.

That city is ſituated about ſixty werſts from the Caſpian ſea, on an iſland in the Volga. The neighbouring country is all a barren deſert, but the iſlands adjacent to the town are very fruitful, and produce excellent grapes, tranſplanted thither from Perſia; alſo water-melons, eſteemed the beſt in the world, and various kinds of muſk-melons, peaches, cherries, pears, apples, and apricots. Here are ſeveral large vineyards, belonging partly to the court, and

partly

the town are collected great quantities of cor
ſalt: there is alſo a gunpowder manufactory, in v
and the mines of ſalt-petre, are employed a
number of workmen for the ſervice of the goverr
. The climate is healthy, though very hot, a
weather is generally calm, during which, great
bers of gnats and muſketoes infeſt the inhabi
the market is plentifully ſupplied with proviſi
all kinds, but eſpecially fiſh, of which no pla
I know abounds with ſuch variety. After t
is over, which is uſually by ten o'clock, wl
mains of the common ſorts are thrown on the
hill, where the hogs and poultry feed on then
ſize of the carp exceeds all I ever heard of;
ſeen ſome of them of more than thirty pounds, v
and luſcious. They have plenty of partridges ar
tards. The Kalmucks, (who are keen ſportſmen
cularly at hawking, in which they have arrived t
perfection,) kill the buſtards with bows and a
when they ſee them feeding, they ride in upo
at full ſpeed, and as the buſtard is a heavy bir
mounts ſlowly, they have an opportunity of
ing them with broad-headed arrows.
One day as I was walking through the ſt

Aug. 5, we quitted Aſtrachan in five veſſels, three of them flat-bottomed, of about one hundred and fifty tons, with three maſts and ten guns each. The 7th, after entering the Caſpian, we got out of ſight of land; the water however ſtill continued freſh as the river. The 30th, we arrived at Niezabatt, the place where they intended to land on the territories of Perſia.

The navigation of the Caſpian belongs ſolely to the Ruſſians, the Perſians and other borderers having nothing but fiſhing-boats. It contains abundance of fiſh, but no ſhell-fiſh, except a kind of cockle.

The 21ſt we arrived at a caravanſera, which are generally large ſquare buildings, with a court in the middle: all round there are rooms for lodging travellers, and on one ſide a ſtable for horſes. As there are no inns in the Eaſt, theſe caravanſeras in ſome meaſure ſupply that defect, though nothing is found in them but ſhelter: they are, however, very convenient for travellers, and ſome of them can contain five hundred men with their horſes: there is commonly an old man, who cleans the rooms, and fetches neceſſaries from the next town or village. The 27th we arrived at Shamachy, the Ambaſſador and his train making a public entry. October 2 the Chan with a numerous retinue made a ceremonial viſit to the Ambaſſador. This city is the capital of Shirvan: it is large, but the houſes are meanly built. The air is more healthy than at places nearer to the Caſpian ſea: there is a conſiderable traffick at this place, particularly in raw ſilk, which is produced in the neighbourhood; alſo cotton. The country produces, beſides many kinds of fruits, plenty of wheat, barley, and fine grapes, from which the Chriſtians make very good wine.

Dec. 4, all things being prepared for our departure, we were furniſhed with one hundred and

ſixty

ſixty camels, and near two hundred horſes and mules. The 11th, we arrived at the river Kure, which divides the province of Shirvan from Kurdiſtan. The Kurdi are a very ancient people, and ſeem to be the ſame whom Xenophon, in the *Anabaſis*, calls *Karduchi*, who ſo ſtrenuouſly oppoſed his paſſage in his famous retreat from Artaxerxes. They are ſtill reckoned a brave people. Their horſes are moſt eſteemed of any in Perſia, both for beauty and ſtrength.

While we halted about noon of the 14th, ſome Perſian ſportſmen, who by their dreſs ſeemed perſons of diſtinction, pitched their tents near ours. They ſent the Ambaſſador a preſent of wild fowl, and an antelope: they had ſeveral grey-hounds, and a couple of large hawks, which were trained to fly at antelopes; the hawks cannot indeed hold ſo ſtrong a creature as an antelope; but they fly about its head, and thereby retard its velocity, till the greyhounds or horſemen overtake; for the antelope far outruns any greyhound I ever ſaw. In this deſart, I have ſeen flocks of them, conſiſting of two or three hundred. In training hawks to fly at antelopes, they ſtuff the ſkins of theſe animals with ſtraw, and feed the hawk between their horns, hence they are accuſtomed to hover round the head, which proves the deſtruction of theſe creatures. I was informed it is in this manner the Tartars manage hawks to fly at foxes and wolves.

On the 27th we travelled over exceeding high mountains, from whence I was told by an Armenian merchant in our company, might be ſeen in a clear day the top of the famous mount Ararat. In the evening, we arrived at Tauris, a large and populous city, capital of the province of that name, and the reſidence of the Chan. It is ſituated in a fruitful plain, encompaſſed by the high rocks of mount Tauris: from the remains of ancient buildings, it is plain once to have been a magnificent city;

city; but lawleſs ambition has laid it waſte, and converted fruitful fields into deſarts, by diverting the ſprings, or turning the rivers. This is a circumſtance, to which few countries are ſo much expoſed as Perſia; for in the inland part of it there is almoſt no rain, which obliges the inhabitants to water their vegetables from ſprings and brooks. They often convey even rivers, ſeveral leagues in channels under ground for this purpoſe. The dew indeed is very plentiful; but would be inſufficient of itſelf for the purpoſes of vegetation.

Tauris has a conſiderable commerce in raw ſilk, and manufactories of carpets, and ſilk and cotton ſtuffs. They have great crops of wheat and barley, when at the trouble and expence of watering the fields; but their principal ſupport is rice, brought from the province of Ghilan, where it grows very plentifully: for this kind of grain, which of all others thrives beſt on wet land, agrees wonderfully with that rich moiſt ſoil near the Caſpian ſea.

The 23d of January 1717, we left Tauris: nothing remarkable occurred till the 25th of February, when we reached Koom, which is reckoned one of the chief towns of Perſia, owing to ſome moſques containing monuments of Shah's highly venerated. It is alſo famous for manufacturing the beſt blades in all Perſia for ſabres and poniards.

Mar. 1, we arrived at Kaſhan, a large and populous city, ſituated in a fertile plain, which ſecures plenty of all neceſſaries, and contains ſeveral well-built moſques and caravanſeras. It is much peſtered with ſcorpions: the ſting proves mortal in a few hours, if the oil of ſcorpions be not applied, or a dead one bruiſed. They are the more terrible, as few houſes are free from them; for moſt of the floors being of earth, and covered with carpets or mats, below theſe the ſcorpions find or make holes for themſelves, where they lurk unſeen. They do not indeed

indeed often hurt, unleſs touched ſuddenly. It is adviſeable for all travellers to examine diligently the place where they are to ſleep before they go to bed. The 6th, we reached Buzabbatt, the weather was very hot. At this place I ſaw a tarantula: it drops its venom upon the ſkin, which is of ſuch a nature, that it immediately penetrates into the body, and cauſes dreadful ſymptoms. The remedy is the application of the ſame animal when bruiſed: they alſo make the patient drink abundance of ſweet milk, after which, he is put in a kind of tray ſuſpended by ropes fixed in the four corners: it is turned round till the ropes are twiſted hard together, and when let go at once, the untwining turns the baſket round with ſuch a quick motion, as to force the patient to vomit.

The 14th we entered Iſpahan: having with great pomp and many guards paſſed through a part of the city, we arrived at the end of our journey; a noble palace in the middle of the city, with a garden, three courts, and apartments ſufficient for the Ambaſſador, and all his retinue.

May 4th, being appointed for the audience, the Ambaſſador repaired in proceſſion to the palace. In one apartment we were ſeated to wait till the Shah was ready: we were there two hours, during which time all the miniſters of ſtate and officers of the houſehold, paſſed us in great ſtate. After them, came a large elephant mounted by his keeper; then two large lions, led by their keepers, with chains of maſſy gold. When this was over, an officer informed the Ambaſſador, that the Shah waited for him.

We then entered a ſpacious garden: the firſt thing that preſented, was a noble view of twenty horſes ſtanding in a row, richly capariſoned, having all their ſaddles and bridles ornamented with gold and ſilver, and ſome of them ſet with ſapphires, emeralds, and other precious ſtones. The horſes were all tied to a rope,

a rope, fixed to the ground at the extremities by a ſtake of gold, near which lay a mallet of the ſame metal for driving it. At each end of the row ſtood a large veſſel of gold full of water for the horſes to drink. Approaching nearer to the hall of audience, we paſſed the two lions chained to the ground, alſo the elephant: as the Ambaſſador paſſed, both the lions couched, and the elephant bent his fore-knee, at a word pronounced by the keepers.

We aſcended the hall of audience by eight ſteps of marble. The ceiling is very magnificent, being all arched, and ſet with mirrours of different magnitudes, till within three feet of the floor; which is quite covered with ſilk carpets, interwoven with branches and foliage of gold and ſilver. Fountains ſpouted water, which fell upon roſes and other flowers. At the farther end of the hall, ſat the Shah upon a Sopha, raiſed from the floor, attended by twenty eunuchs. The miniſters ſtood in their places, clothed magnificently in their robes. I muſt confeſs the appearance was very ſplendid, and put me in mind of the accounts, left us by the ancients, of the magnificence of the Kings of Perſia. The Ambaſſador having delivered his credentials, made a ſhort ſpeech of compliment, and the Shah anſwered it in obliging terms, enquiring after his Czariſh Majeſty's health, and aſked ſeveral queſtions about the Swediſh war, and whether he had ſuffered any hardſhips in ſo long a journey. At laſt he was deſired to take his ſeat: muſick played the whole time, and the Muſti read without intermiſſion chapters from the Koran. The preſents ſent the Shah by the Czar, were brought by fifty men.

There were now placed before the company little tables, on which were ſet all kinds of ſweetmeats and confectionary; and before the Ambaſſador, was laid a golden calianne, or tobacco-pipe. Several meſſages paſſed between the King and the Ambaſ-

ſador. In about an hour, victuals were brought by a number of ſervants. Firſt the Shah was ſerved, next the Ambaſſador with his retinue, then all the officers of ſtate: the entertainment conſiſted moſtly of different kinds of rice boiled with butter, fowls, mutton, boiled and roaſted lamb. The whole was ſerved in large gold or china diſhes. According to the cuſtom of the country, we had neither napkins, ſpoons, knives, nor forks: for the Shah himſelf eat with his fingers. Our drink was ſherbet and water, cooled with ice. When the entertainment was over, the Ambaſſador took his leave, and returned to his lodgings.

The Shah's name is Huſſein: being educated in the harem, he is little acquainted with the world, and leaves the management of the empire wholly to his miniſters. At this very time there was a formidable rebellion begun at Candahar, a ſtrong town on the borders of India, by Mery Mahmut, an enterprizing and powerful chief, who took advantage of the weakneſs of the preſent adminiſtration.

The 9th of May, the Ambaſſador had an audience of the Prime-miniſter. The entertainment was more magnificent than the Shah's. The 15th, they had a ſecond. Three days after Hackim Baſha, or chief phyſician, ſent me an invitation to viſit him: he received me in a very courteous manner, and detained me above two hours talking on different ſubjects: he ſpoke of phyſick and opium: he enquired whence tea came? how it ſhould be made? and what were its virtues? all which I anſwered to his ſatisfaction: hence it is evident, that the Perſians have no correſpondence nor commerce with the Chineſe.

The ſame day the Dutch Commiſſary made his public entry at Iſpahan, as Envoy from the Governor of Batavia, to the Shah of Perſia. He was preceded by ſix elephants ſent as a preſent to the King by the Governor: he had a numerous retinue, and

and was attended by ſeveral gentlemen, and made an appearance as if he had been a Miniſter from any Court in Europe.

The 21ſt, the Ambaſſador was invited to dinner by the Devettar, or keeper of the great ſeal and ſtandiſh. Here, as in all countries, this is an office of great truſt: we were entertained with more magnificence than by the Prime-miniſter, or even at court. The 3d of July the Ambaſſador had his laſt audience of the Shah, when he received an anſwer to the Czar's letter, when he immediately took leave. The 18th, the Shah ſent a preſent of an elephant, two lions, two leopards, ſix monkies, three parrots, three fine horſes, and various birds. Auguſt the 3d we began to prepare for our return home.

Iſpahan is ſituated in thirty-two degrees north longitude, on a fruitful plain: it is plentifully ſupplied with water from the river Schewderoo, over which is a bridge, which far exceeds any ſtructure of that kind I ever ſaw. The city is populous and very extenſive: as moſt of the inhabitants have their houſes apart, ſurrounded with gardens planted with fruit and other trees, at a diſtance it appears like a city in a foreſt, and affords a very agreeable proſpect. There are here many manufactories of ſilk and cotton, and a great many ſilk-worms in the neighbourhood: as the conſumption of ſilk in the place is very conſiderable, little of it is exported. The making carpets however employs the greateſt number of hands, for which the demand is great, as they are preferable in quality, deſigns, and colour, to any made elſewhere.

The fields about the city are very fertile, and produce plentiful crops of excellent wheat and barley; but then they muſt all be watered on account of the dryneſs of the ſoil, which is a work of labour and expence: beſides theſe I ſaw no other grain.

The Perſians tread out their corn with oxen or aſſes: for this purpoſe they make a circle about twenty or thirty feet in diameter, on the circumference whereof the ſheaves are laid: there is a light ſledge or hurdle, drawn by the cattle, in which the driver ſits, and directs them round and round. There is no hay in Perſia; and the beſt horſes are kept in a condition for any ſervice, upon ſtraw, and a ſmall quantity of dried barley twice a day.

They have flocks of large ſheep, whereof the mutton is very good, but the wool coarſe. In the province of Karamenia they have exceeding fine wool, ſome of which I have ſeen, little inferior to ſilk: their horned cattle are buffaloes, which afford them milk, and are uſed in ploughing the ground, and in drawing carriages: they have alſo the common kind of cattle of different ſorts. Beſides, there is another kind, having a high riſing upon the ſhoulder, with clean limbs, which are very handſome.

While I remained at Iſpahan, I viſited the Shah's aviary: it contains a great variety of all kinds of birds, many of which had come from India and other foreign parts; among the reſt were a couple of turkies, which it ſeems are ſcarce birds in Perſia. The place is very neat and elegant.

Proviſions of all kinds are very dear at Iſpahan, which is ſufficiently apparent from the number of poor that go about the ſtreets: nothing however is ſo extravagantly high as fire-wood.

Sept. 1ſt, having procured horſes and camels, and every thing neceſſary, we travelled ſhort ſtages along the ſame road by which we came to Iſpahan, till we came on the 26th to Arrazant, where we turned to the right, and took the road leading to Caſbin and Ghilan. The 28th we reached Caſbin, ſituated in a ſpacious plain. The 12th of October we purſued our journey northward, croſſing many rocks and mountains, and going through deep ways

till

till we arrived at Reſhd, the capital of Ghilan. It is ſurrounded with marſhes and pools, which render it very unhealthy. The country is however fruitful, particularly in rice: great flocks of fieldfares, thruſhes, black-birds, with vaſt quantities of ſtorks, cranes, ſwans, wild-geeſe, and all other kinds of water-fowl come hither from the north during the winter, and return to the northern regions in the ſpring.

Dec. 12th, we arrived at Shamachy, where the Ambaſſador determined to winter, notwithſtanding the plague had raged there greatly, and was but juſt ſtopped. Nothing material happened during the winter, and we left the place the 16th of June 1718: from hence we ſet ſail for Aſtrachan, where we arrived the 18th of July. September the 7th, leaving that place, we ſailed up the Volga; but our progreſs, contrary to the courſe of the river, was very ſlow and tedious. October the 12th we got to Saratof. The winter drawing on, we waited here for the ſnow, in order to proceed by land on ſledges; which we did November the 1ſt, and the 30th we arrived at Moſcow, and the 30th. of December at Peterſburgh.

Thus have I finiſhed my account of a long, tedious, and dangerous journey, which laſted for three years, attended with many difficulties, not eaſily conceived by thoſe who have not travelled the ſame road. At our return to St. Peterſburgh, we found his Majeſty at that place, who was well ſatisfied with his Ambaſſador, whoſe principal errand was to cultivate amity and good correſpondence between the two crowns of Ruſſia and Perſia.

CHAP. II.

Journey from Peterſburgh to Pekin: With ambaſſy from Peter I. to Kamhi, Emperor of China.

THE Ambaſſador, Iſmayloff; Secretary of the Embaſſy, L. de Lange; an Ambaſſador's Secretary; ſix Gentlemen of the Embaſſy, myſelf one; a prieſt, clerks, footmen, &c. ſixty; and twenty-five dragoons, from Tobolſky to Pekin.

Upon my return from Iſpahan, finding that his Majeſty had nominated a Captain of his Guards, L. V. Iſmayloff, of a good family, and much reſpected, to be his Ambaſſador to Pekin, I became very deſirous of making that journey in his train; and, being recommended, was accepted. The preparations for the embaſſy being made, I ſet out from Peterſburgh the 14th of July, 1719, in company with Lange and Grave, attended by a few ſervants. We travelled to Moſcow in ſmall parties, the more eaſily to procure poſt-horſes. We arrived there the 30th of July, and ſpent five weeks in preparing barques to go by water to Cazan. Sept. 9th, having ſhipped our baggage, and prepared every thing for our departure, we went ourſelves on board, and after firing nine guns, rowed down the river Moſcow. We arrived at Cazan the 20th of October.

Nov. 29th, we travelled north-eaſtward in ſledges on the ſnow, through woods conſiſting chiefly of tall oaks, fir, and birch. This part of the country is very fruitful, producing plenty of cattle, corn, and honey. The hives are trunks of trees hollowed, and faſtened with wythes, to prevent the bears from pulling them down, who are great lovers of honey. I have ſeen above an hundred hives near one village. They have a method of extracting the honey and wax without killing the bees.

About

About Klinof the country is reckoned ſo proper paſturage for ſheep, that his Majeſty ordered ſome thouſands of German ſheep, moſt eſteemed for their wool, to be bought and ſent thither, with a view to eſtabliſh a manufactory at this place for cloathing his army. He alſo cauſed a German ſhepherd to be engaged in his ſervice, who is ſettled here, and enjoys a conſiderable ſalary. The flocks are already ſo numerous, that I am perſuaded they will in time anſwer the end propoſed. A thouſand other inſtances might be produced of the unbounded genius of this great and active Prince, who ſpares no expence, and overlooks nothing that can contribute either to the honour or advantage of his empire. I cannot omit another ſeemingly inconſiderable article, I mean, pump-leather: this commodity was formerly brought from England and Holland, at no ſmall charge: to ſave which, his Majeſty gave orders to engage an Engliſh tanner for a certain number of years, whom he ſent to Cazan, where the beſt hides are, to teach the natives the art of dreſſing them. This ſcheme has fully anſwered the end in view, and produced abundance not only of pump-leather, but of every other kind of leather whereof that country hath any need.

Dec. 9th, we arrived at Solikamſky, a large and populous town, and the capital of a province. Its ſituation is very pleaſant on the Kama, a famous river here, which, receiving many others, form together a mighty ſtream, nearly equal to the Volga, into which it falls. It is well ſtored with variety of excellent fiſh. On the banks are fine corn-fields and paſture-grounds. The ſalt-works of Solikamſky furniſh all Ruſſia. When the ſalt is made, it is laid up in graneries till the ſeaſon of tranſporting it to Moſcow, Peterſburgh, &c. The barques for this purpoſe, called Lodia, are uncommonly built. I have ſeen ſome of them longer and broader than any firſt-rate man of war in England, and not one iron nail

in the whole. All of them are flat-bottomed, having one tall tree for a maſt, and a ſail of light canvaſs: to manage this mighty machine, ſix or eight hundred men are neceſſary. The rudder is nearly as long as the barque, and ſo unweildy, that ſometimes it requires forty or fifty men to ſteer it. They load theſe ſhips very deep, and let them float down the Kama into the Volga.

Here are likewiſe very rich iron-mines, and alſo copper ones: they have likewiſe the foſſil called Aſbeſtos, of which incombuſtible linen is made.

The weather is much colder at Solikamſky than at other places ſituated much nearer the north pole; owing, perhaps, to the great diſtance from any part of the ocean.

Dec. 10th, we ſet out for Tobolsky, croſſing the mountains named Verchatinsky-Gory, which divide Ruſſia from Siberia: they are quite covered with wood, conſiſting of tall firs of different kinds, larch, birch, &c. Having paſſed them, we deſcended on the 11th into a country finely varied with plains and riſing grounds, interſperſed with woods, villages, corn-fields, and paſturage.

Before we enter Siberia, it will not be improper to give a ſhort account of the ſingular manner in which this moſt extenſive country was diſcovered by the Ruſſians. About the beginning of the laſt century a certain Don Coſſack, named Yarmak, being obliged, by ſome accident to leave his native country, and having no means of ſubſiſtence, he, with a few accomplices, betook himſelf to robbing on the highways. He ſoon became famous and powerful: for he robbed only the rich; and, by a generoſity uncommon in ſuch a character, liberally beſtowed to ſuch as were in want. He never killed, nor even hurt any perſon, unleſs compelled to ſuch outrages in his own defence. This behaviour ſo raiſed his reputation, that all the idle fellows in the country enliſted them-

themſelves in his gang, proud to follow ſo brave and enterpriſing a leader. He became, at laſt, ſo troubleſome, that the Governors of the ſouthern provinces ſent out troops to apprehend him; but being previouſly informed of the deſign, he withdrew from the land, and, procuring boats on the Volga, commenced pirate on that river: being attacked here alſo, he was forced to croſs the Caſpian ſea, ſhelter himſelf on the Perſian ſhore, where he paſſed ſome time under the diſguiſe of a merchant. Being again diſcovered, he was obliged by the Perſians to quit their coaſt; and now his only refuge was to return to the Volga, where he behaved with great circumſpection, often lurking in woods and villages; and, being in no want of money, paid the inhabitants liberally for every thing he needed. Foreſeeing, however, that ſuch a numerous gang could not be long concealed, he took the reſolution of leaving the Volga, and ſteered his courſe up the river Rama, at that time little frequented by any nation. Yarmak, and two hundred followers, wintered at a village on this river; and on the approach of ſummer, croſſed the mountains of Verchaturia; hoping to find ſome inhabited country, or ſecure retreat. They arrived at the river Tur, and, finding it navigable, made canoes for the whole gang. They arrived at ſome villages of Mahometan Tartars, who were ſurprized at the ſight of ſuch a number of ſtrangers. Yarmak purſued his courſe to the river Tobol, where he found the towns populous, and the land well cultivated. His approach alarmed the King of the Tartars: but Yarmak defeated his troops, armed with bows and arrows, by his fire-arms. Succeſſive engagements, however, ſo weakened him, that he was obliged to retreat: which he did, carrying off a good booty to the village where he had wintered. There he determined to ſubmit to the Czar's clemency, in hope of ob-

taining a pardon for himſelf and accomplices, on condition of pointing out the way to a rich and eaſy conqueſt of the country he had diſcovered. The propoſal was made and accepted, and troops ordered to attend him. They marched to Solikamſky, where they paſſed the winter in preparations. During this interval, Yarmak behaved with ſurpriſing prudence and activity, and diſcovered himſelf to be a perſon of uncommon genius. He collected his old followers, and formed them into a company, in whom he could fully confide. The Tartars were prepared to receive him: but in an action on the river Irtiſh they were entirely defeated, but the brave Yarmak was drowned. This action was followed with the conqueſt of all Siberia.

Dec. 14th we came to Tumen, a pretty neat place and well fortified. The adjacent country is covered with fine woods interſperſed with villages, corn-fields, and, paſturage: proviſions of all kinds are very plentiful. The 15th we croſſed the Tobol, and, paſſing through a fine country and well peopled, arrived the next day at Tobolky, the capital of this mighty province.

That city is in latititude 58, at the conflux of the Irtiſh and the Tobol, both which rivers are navigable for ſeveral hundred miles above this place. It is well built, and inhabited chiefly by Ruſſians. There are many merchants very rich from the profitable trade they carry on to the borders of China, and many places of their own country. There are always five or ſix thouſand regular troops, beſides a number of irregulars.

The country around abounds greatly with game and water-fowl: and the furs here are better than thoſe of any other country. The woods abound with elks, rein-deer, roebucks, and an incredible number of hares. As to fiſh, there are few countries in the world ſo well watered with fine navigable rivers

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as Siberia: and the quantity of fiſh is very great, and excellent of their kinds.

Southward from Tobolſky the ſoil is fertile, producing abundance of wheat, rye, barley, oats, and other grain. The cattle alſo are very numerous, and, in winter, are fed with hay. All kinds of proviſions are very reaſonable; from whence it will appear that Tobolſky is not ſuch a diſagreeable place as is generally imagined. The river Irtiſh takes its riſe from a lake in the country of the Black Kalmucks; a mighty people governed by a prince called Kontayſha, whoſe territories are bounded by three of the moſt potent empires in the world: on the north by Ruſſia, by China, on the eaſt, and by the country of the Great Mogul to the ſouth. From the two firſt he is ſeparated by deſart plains, and from the third by almoſt impaſſable mountains. To the ſouth-weſt, his frontiers reach near the Bucharia. He is a very powerful prince, and able to bring into the field, at a ſhort warning, one hundred thouſand horſe, all able-bodied men, well mounted, and armed with bows and arrows, lances, and ſabres. Theſe Tartars live in tents all the year, removing from place to place, as called by neceſſity, or inclination. This is the moſt pleaſant and ancient manner of life. It is entertaining to hear them commiſerate thoſe who are confined to one place of abode, and obliged to ſupport themſelves by labour, which they reckon the greateſt ſlavery. They are not ſuch a ſavage people as they are generally repreſented; for I am informed that a perſon may travel among them with greater ſafety, both to his perſon and effects, than in many other countries. The Kontayſha is the ſame, as in European maps is called the great Cham of Tartary. As no Europeans travel through that country, theſe maps muſt be very erroneous.

Jan. 9th, 1720, we proceeded towards Tara, which we reached the 15th. The country abounds with woods, corn-fields, and fine paſturage, which appeared ſufficiently from the quantities of hay, and the good condition of the cattle. Though the face of the country was covered with deep ſnow, we found the air of Tara much milder than at any place ſince we left Cazan. The 19th we entered the Barabars, a large marſhy deſart. The 29th we reached the Oby, and croſſing it entered a country pretty well inhabited by Ruſſians. Feb. 4th we got to Tomsky, ſituated on the Tomm, in a fine country. The 23d, after paſſing a ſpacious country, we arrived at Yeniſey, which is here full as large as the Volga. It runs the longeſt courſe of any river on this vaſt continent: the 27th we left Yeniſeysky. In this extenſive country the Ruſſians obſerve that where the ſort of fir, commonly called the Scotch fir, grows, the ground never fails of producing corn; but not ſo where the pitch, or any other kind of fir prevails.

The river Lena is one of the greateſt in the world: It riſes at a ſmall diſtance from the Baykall lake, and runs to the north, with little variation, till it falls into the ocean: its length I compute to be two thouſand five hundred Engliſh miles. It is navigable during this whole courſe.

We ſet out from Elimsky the 12th, and followed the river Angara on the ice. Along the banks we found many villages well peopled, and a fine champaign country, exhibiting beautiful and extenſive proſpects, with abundance of cattle and proviſions.

Mar. 18th, we arrived at the town of Irkutsky, a conſiderable fortified place. We did not leave it till the 15th of May, waiting for the Baykall lake being free from ice. Oppoſite to the mouth of the river Selinga, the lake is about fifty Engliſh miles broad, and about three hundred in length: it is wholly

wholly freſh water. The climate on the ſouth-ſide of it is much more temperate than on the north. The land produces rich crops of wheat, rye, barley, oats, buck-wheat, and peaſe; the winters are ſhort, and the ſnow does not lie above ſix weeks or two months.

May 29th, we arrived at Selinginſky, conſiſting of about two hundred houſes and two churches. On the other ſide the river Selinga the country is open, dry, and ſomewhat barren; but affords excellent paſture for ſheep, whereof the Buraty, the inhabitants, have large flocks. They have alſo large horned cattle, and abundance of horſes and camels, wherein all their riches conſiſt. Here ends the tribe of the Buraty, and the nation of the Mongals begins, who occupy all the country from hence to the great Chineſe wall. Part of them are ſubject to China, and part of them to Ruſſia. It is remarkable that in all their vaſt country, there is not a ſingle houſe to be ſeen; all live in tents, and move from place to place with their cattle.

The Ambaſſador writ to the Allegada, or Prime-miniſter of China, to notify his arrival, and deſire orders for his reception, on the borders. This letter was ſent to the prince of Mongalia to be forwarded.

June 24th, an officer arrived from the court of Pekin, in order to find out the Ambaſſador's ſtrength, and whether his errand was friendly. July 10th, we returned to Selinginsky, from a hunting-match of ſeveral days, with a friendly Tartar. During the excurſion I could not enough admire the beauty of the country through which we paſſed. The gentle riſing of the hills, many of which have their tops only covered with wood, and the fertility of the vales, contribute to form one of the moſt delightful landſcapes the world can afford. To this may be added the temperature and dryneſs of the climate,

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in which reſpects this far exceeds any country with which I am acquainted. After Midſummer there is ſcarce any rain till December, when the ſnow falls, and in ſuch moderate quantities, that it does not hinder the cattle from lying abroad all the winter.

Auguſt 24th, our conductor arrived, but it was the 18th of September before we ſet out. The 20th we reached Saratzyn: the ſoil in this country is very good, and the graſs rank and thick. The Mongals often ſet it on fire in the ſpring, during high winds: it then burns furiouſly, running like wild-fire, and ſpreading its flames to the diſtance of ten or twenty miles, till the progreſs is interrupted by ſome river or barren hill. When any perſon finds himſelf to the leeward of theſe flames, the only method by which he can ſave himſelf from their fury, is to kindle immediately the graſs where he ſtands, and follow his own fire. For this purpoſe, every perſon is provided with flints, ſteel and tinder. By reaſon of this practice, caravans, travellers with merchandize, but eſpecially armies, never encamp upon this rank graſs.

The 26th, proceeding on our journey, I walked in the evening from our tents, and found many plants of excellent rhubarb, and by the help of a ſtick dug up as much as I wanted. October the 4th we entered the hungry deſart: we were joined by a Lama on the way, who ſpoke of a terrible earthquake that had lately happened in China, and diſcourſing on the cauſe, he ſaid, that ſome of their learned Lamas had written, that God, after he had formed the earth, placed it on a golden frog; and whenever this prodigious frog had occaſion to ſcratch its head, or ſtretch out its foot, that part of the earth immediately above was ſhaken. The 31ſt we had paſſed the deſart, and arrived in ſight of the great wall. November the 5th we arrived at it: we entered at a great gate, which is ſhut every night, and

and always guarded by a thouſand men. Upon the road from Siang-fu, a populous city, we met with many turrets, called Poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances from one another, with a flagſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendant. Theſe places are guarded by a few ſoldiers, who run on foot from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters that concern the Emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By this means the court is informed, in the ſpeedieſt manner imaginable, of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote province of the empire. The 18th we arrived at Pekin, entering it in order, through a multitude of ſpectators.

Thus we arrived at laſt at the famous city of Pekin, the capital of this mighty empire, after a tedious journey of exactly ſixteen months. It is indeed very long, yet may be performed in much leſs time. I am of opinion that travellers might go from Peterſburgh to Pekin, and return in the ſpace of ſix months.

On the 28th, the day appointed for the Ambaſſador's public audience of the Emperor, horſes were brought, as the Emperor was at a country-ſeat ſix miles from Pekin, where we arrived at ten in the morning. We drank tea in a large room till the Emperor was ready. The Ambaſſador was then conducted into the hall of audience, and delivered his credentials.

Soon after our being admitted, the Emperor called the Ambaſſador to him, took him by the hand, and talked very familiarly on various ſubjects: among other things, he told him he was informed, his Czariſh Majeſty expoſed his perſon to many dangers, particularly by water: at which he was much ſurprized, but deſired he would take the advice of an old man, and not hazard his life, by committing

himſelf to the rage of the mercileſs waves and winds, where no valour could avail. The Emperor ſat croſs-legg'd on his throne: he was dreſſed in a ſhort looſe coat of ſable; on his head was a little round cap faced with black fox-ſkin, on the top of which I obſerved a large beautiful pearl, which, together with a taſſel of red ſilk, was all the ornament I ſaw about this mighty monarch: the throne was very ſimple. It was now about noon, at which time dinner began to be ſerved up: the deſert of fruit and confections came firſt, which is the cuſtom of this country. We had fowls, mutton, and pork, all very good of their kinds: the Emperor ſent ſeveral diſhes from his own table to the Ambaſſador, particularly ſome boiled pheaſants. The Emperor ſent frequently to the Ambaſſador, enquiring about ſeveral Princes and States of Europe, with whoſe power by ſea and land he was not unacquainted. But above all, he wondered how the kingdom of Sweden could hold out ſo long againſt ſo great a power as that of Ruſſia.

Dec. 2d, the Ambaſſador had a ſecond audience, when the Czar's preſents were carried to court, conſiſting of various rich furs, clocks, repeating-watches, mirrors, the battle of Pultava nicely turned in ivory, done by his Czariſh Majeſty's own hands: the Emperor viewed them all at a diſtance. The 7th, we dined at the Allegada's, where we were magnificently entertained: we were conducted through all the apartments of his houſe, and ſaw a noble collection of many curioſities, both natural and artificial: particularly a large quantity of old porcelain, made in China or Japan, and at preſent to be found only in the cabinets of the curious: they conſiſted chiefly of a great number of jars. He took much pleaſure in telling when and where they were manufactured: as far as I can remember, many of them were above two thouſand years old. He

added, that both in China and Japan they had loſt the art of making porcelain in that perfection they did in former times; and the fault, in his opinion, lay in the preparation of the materials.

The 8th, we were conducted to the Emperor's ſtables to the elephants, of which there are ſixty. The 12th, we ſaw the Emperor's glaſs-houſe, which his imperial Majeſty often viſits with pleaſure. It was erected by himſelf, and is the firſt that ever was in China. It is ſurprizing that the Chineſe, who have been conſtantly employed for ſo many ages in the manufacture of china-ware, ſhould never have ſtumbled upon that of glaſs. This ſhews evidently, that the degree of heat neceſſary in their ovens, muſt not be very great, or their materials free from ſand.

The 17th, I ſent to inform the Captain of the Chineſe guard, that I intended to take a turn through the city; who immediately gave orders for a ſoldier to attend me. I went into ſeveral ſhops where they ſold different kinds of merchandiſe, particularly thoſe of gold and ſilver: in theſe ſhops were vaſt quantities. There is no current coin in this country, except one ſmall round piece of braſs, about the value of one-tenth of a penny ſterling. With one of them a man can buy a diſh of hot tea, a pipe of tobacco, or a dram of brandy; and a beggar may dine for three of them. There are cooks ſhops, where dogs, and cats, and ſuch other creatures are dreſſed for the entertainment of theſe people: in moſt of the ſhops I found both men and women unveiled. They were extremely complaiſant, and gave me a diſh of tea in every ſhop.

The 22d, Father Kenggler, who had been long in China, told us, that Nankin is at leaſt three times as large as Pekin; but that it was ſomewhat diminiſhed ſince the court left it to reſide at Pekin. At this rate Nankin muſt be one of the largeſt cities in the world: it is a place of the moſt extenſive commerce,

merce, and contains the greateſt manufactori
ſorts of ſilk and cotton-ſtuffs of any city in th
try, beſides thoſe of china-ware. It is wat
a fine navigable river, on which are emplc
incredible number of boats.

Jan. 1, 1721, the Emperor's General of
dined at the Ambaſſador's: he was a Ta
aſked him how long the Chineſe had known
of gunpowder? he anſwered, above two th
years in fire-works, according to their record
that its application to the purpoſes of war, w
a late introduction. The converſation then
on printing: he ſaid, he could not then a
preciſely the antiquity of this invention; b
abſolutely certain, it was much more ancie
that of gunpowder.

The next day the Ambaſſador had anot
dience of the Emperor; during which, his
talked very familiarly on various ſubjects, j
larly hiſtory; wherein he diſcovered himſelf
quainted with that of the holy ſcriptures, as
of his own country: he ſaid, that the chron
the Chineſe was far more ancient than that
ſcriptures; but obſerved, that it ended bacl
bulous accounts, concerning which nothir
tain could be determined: as to Noah's flc
affirmed, that at or near that time there was
deluge in China, which deſtroyed all the inh
of the plains; but that ſuch as eſcaped to the
tains were ſaved: he then diſcourſed of the in
of the loadſtone, and mentioned a record of
two thouſand years, that ſhewed the uſe of th
paſs: he alſo confirmed the above particula
cerning printing and gunpowder.

The 15th, we were at court on a great
which laſts ſeveral days. On this occaſion v
ſembled ſeveral Tartar Princes, particula
Kutuſhtu, and the Tuſhdu-Chan; togethe

many perſons of diſtinction from Korea, and all the dominions of China.

The 22d, I went along with a Chineſe gentleman to ſee a manufactory of china-ware, about twelve miles eaſt of the city. I ſaw many people at work: the ovens in particular ſeemed very curious: they made no ſecret at this place of what they were employed about. The 30th, we were at court to ſee the fire-works on the new-year's day: we were conducted through a garden, in the middle of which ſtood a large building with covered galleries all around. Before the houſe was a canal: we took our places juſt under the gallery where the Emperor ſat. The machinery for the fire-works was placed on the other ſide of the canal. A rocket from the Emperor's gallery was the ſignal, and in a few minutes many thouſand lanthorns were lighted of all colours. On another ſignal the rockets were played off: they ſprung up to a prodigious height, and fell down in figures of ſtars, diſplaying the greateſt variety of beautiful colours. Oppoſite the Emperor's gallery was ſuſpended a large round veſſel of twenty feet diameter; a rocket from the gallery lighted a match, and immediately the bottom of it dropped down with a loud noiſe: then fell out a lattice-work all on fire, of various colours: after this thirty lanthorns of different colours dropped from the veſſel, hanging from one another in wreaths of fire: then fell ten or twelve pillars of fire; and lanthorns continued falling to the number of one thouſand. The 1ſt of February the fire-works were reſumed: what pleaſed me moſt was a ſmall mount raiſed in the middle of the garden, from which ſprung a ſtream of white-and-blue fire in imitation of water. Upon the whole they ſurpaſſed any thing of the kind I ever ſaw, though I have been preſent at performances of this nature at Peterſburgh, by the beſt artiſts in Europe. Beſides the art diſplayed in the con-

contrivance and figure, theſe works furniſhed in particular a wonderful variety of moſt beautiful colours, far exceeding my ability to deſcribe.

The 10th, the Emperor ſent three officers, with preſents to his Czariſh Majeſty, the chief of which were tapeſtry for two rooms, enamelled cups, flower-pieces on taffety, two cheſts of Chineſe rockets, pieces of ſilk, fans, &c.

The 21ſt, purſuant to an invitation from the Emperor, we went ſome miles from Pekin to a great hunting-match; in which many hares, partridges pheaſants, and quails were killed with bows and arrows, fowling-pieces and hawks: alſo ſome ſtags. We ſaw wild boars, but it was not the ſeaſon for hunting them. After our return, and dining near the Emperor's tent, three tygers were let out of a cage at one of which the Emperor fired; but, from the diſtance, miſſed: he ſigned to the Ambaſſador to try his piece at him, which he did, guarded by ten men with lances, and ſhot him dead; at night the Emperor ſent him the ſkin. Next morning the ſport was reſumed.

The 23d, the Ambaſſador had his audience of leave. The Emperor received him in a moſt friendly manner. The 26th, the Ambaſſador received a letter from the Emperor to his Czariſh Majeſty. The ſame day he received a viſit from a young gentleman, a deſcendant of Confucius, whoſe family is ſtill honoured and eſteemed even by the Emperor himſelf.

Before we leave China, I ſhall make a few general remarks on the people and country; and begin with the long wall: it encompaſſes all the north and weſt parts of China. It was built about ſix hundred years ago. It is carried acroſs rivers, and over the tops of the higheſt mountains without interruption keeping nearly along the circular ridge of barren rocks that ſurround the country, and after running about

about twelve thouſand miles, ends in impaſſable mountains and ſandy deſerts. The foundation conſiſts of large blocks of ſquare ſtones laid in mortar; but the reſt of the wall is built of brick. The whole is ſo ſtrong and well-built as to need ſcarce any repairs, and in ſuch a dry climate may remain in this condition for many ages. When carried over ſteep rocks, where no horſe can paſs, it is about fifteen or twenty feet high, and broad in proportion; but when running through a valley, or croſſing a river, there you ſee a ſtrong wall about thirty feet high, with ſquare towers at the diſtance of a bow-ſhot from one another, and embraſures at equal diſtances. The top of the wall is flat, and paved with broad free-ſtone; and where it rides over a rock, or any eminence, you aſcend by a fine eaſy ſtone ſtair.

This wall was begun and completely finiſhed in the ſpace of five years; every ſixth man in China being obliged to work himſelf, or find another in his ſtead. It is reported the labourers ſtood ſo cloſe for many miles diſtance, as to hand the materials from one to another. This I am the more inclined to believe, as the rugged rocks would prevent all uſe of carriages; nor could clay for making bricks, or cement of any kind, be found among them.

After the Chineſe had finiſhed their wall, they had a reſpite for a conſiderable time from the inva-ſions of their enemies, reaping the fruits of their labour in peace and quietneſs. However, about five hundred years ago, the weſtern Tartars found means to get through the wall, and with a powerful army of horſe entered the country. They at laſt became maſters of the greateſt part of China, and kept poſ-ſeſſion of it for many years, till the Chineſe, taking advantage of their negligence, drove them back. From this time they enjoyed long peace, till the fa-tal year 1640, when the Mantzur Tartars con-

quered

quered the whole of it, retain it to this day, and, by their prudent management and mild government, ſeem in a fair way to keep it.

It is of great importance to keep the Weſtern Tartars friends. The preſent Emperor, having experienced their valour in his ſervice, formed alliances with their Princes and Chiefs: others he allured by rich preſents, ſo that they are at preſent little better than his ſubjects. They not only ſupply Pekin with proviſions, the produce of their flocks, but, upon any emergency, can bring to his aſſiſtance fifty thouſand horſe at a ſhort warning.

It may be eaſily imagined that great armies and ſtrict diſcipline are neceſſary to guard ſo extenſive territories, and keep ſuch a numerous people to their duty. The number of ſoldiers reported to be in the empire, is prodigious, and almoſt incredible. I am well informed, that the ſingle province and city of Pekin contain no leſs than an hundred and twenty thouſand effective men, all well paid, well cloathed, and armed.

Notwithſtanding the vaſt revenues which are neceſſary for the ſupport of the government, the duties on inland trade muſt be very eaſy; for I was told by a merchant, that he could live in the capital and trade in what branches of buſineſs he pleaſed, for paying only one ounce of ſilver annually to the Emperor.

What is a greater ſecurity to the empire againſt invaders than either the wall or mountains, is the barren deſert, ſtretching for ſeveral hundred miles weſtward, where none but Tartars can ſubſiſt, and which ſcarce any regular army can paſs.

The part of China I ſaw is chiefly plain, interſperſed with hills and riſing grounds. The whole is pleaſant and well cultivated, producing wheat and other grain, together with abundance of cattle and poultry. There are many navigable rivers and ca-

nals

it to great diſtances. The merchants are im-
ly rich, by their inland and foreign trade,
they carry on to great extent with the Ruſſians
artars, beſides the vaſt ſums they receive annu-
om the Europeans, for tea, china-ware, and
merchandize.

i is generally uſed by every rank of perſons.
the green and bohea grow on the ſame ſhrub:
i curing, the bohea is mixed with the juice of
r plant. The price in Pekin, of the beſt of
ſort, is at the rate of two ſhillings the Engliſh
. The Chineſe drink it without ſugar, though
is the produce of the country, and conſequent-
y cheap.

iong their manufactures, the ſilk-damaſk and
are brought to great perfection. As potters,
japanners, joiners, and paper-makers, they
Their workmanſhip in metals is but clumſy,
: only at founding. The arts of ſtatuary, ſculp-
ind painting, have made but ſmall progreſs
g them.

e Chineſe are a civil, hoſpitable people, com-
it to ſtrangers, and to one another; very regu-
their manners and behaviour, and reſpectful to
ſuperiors. They treat their parents with great
, and their women with much decency. They
n Pekin, for the lower ranks, licenſed brothels,
the ladies have all ſeparate apartments, with
rice of each, deſcribing at the ſame time her
es and qualities, written over the door of her
nent in fair legible characters, which price is
directly by the gallant; by which means there
io noiſy broils or diſturbances.

iey have public hoſpitals for foundlings, with
r perſons for going through the ſtreets to pick
poſed children.

ie ladies in China are very cleanly and modeſt
ir dreſs: their eyes are black, and ſo little,

that

that when they laugh you can ſcarce ſee them. The hair is black as jet, and neatly tied up in a knot c the crown of the head, adorned with artificial flowe of their own making. Thoſe who are inclined the olive complexion, uſe white and red paint, whi they apply very nicely. The Tartar ladies do n conform to the Chineſe practice, of binding the w mens' feet to make them ſmall.

The Chineſe deſerve praiſe in finiſhing whatev they undertake, and all their publick works have ut lity for the deſign. Thoſe at Pekin are inſtances this. The ſtreets, in particular, are the fineſt in t world; ſpacious, neat, and ſtraight. All the can have excellent ſtone bridges over them.

The Chineſe are very active; are honeſt, and o ſerve ſtrict honour and juſtice in their dealings. muſt, however, be acknowledged, that not a few them are much addicted to knavery, and well ſkill in the arts of cheating.

As to their religion, they are divided into ſeve ſects, among which that of the Theiſts is the m rational and reſpectable. They worſhip one Go and pay no religious homage to the images of th countrymen: this is embraced by the Emper himſelf, moſt of the grandees and men of learnin the common people are generally idolaters.

The phyſicians buſy themſelves entirely with t virtues of plants; and among theſe. the moſt f mous is the gingeng, which is ſo much eſteem for its phyſical virtues, that it is the Emperor's pr perty only It is valued at the rate of twenty-fi pounds ſterling the pound weight. There are t ſorts of it.

The great men in China follow the example the weſtern Aſiatics, in keeping eunuchs to atte them; ſo that caſtrating is a trade here.

The language of the Chineſe is compoſed chie of monoſyllables, and ſeems to me eaſily acquire

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The difficulty of learning their letters, or rather marks for words, cannot be ſo great as is commonly repreſented, for you ſcarcely meet a common hawker who cannot read and write what belongs to his calling.

Mar. 2d, we ſent off our heavy baggage early in the morning, and about noon left the fine city of Pekin, accompanied by ſeveral Chineſe gentlemen, who were to return with M. de Lange, whom his Czariſh Majeſty had appointed to remain as his agent at the court of Pekin.

The 9th, we arrived at Kalgan, the laſt town of any note, and about three miles diſtant from the long wall. We ſtaid here two days in order to provide bread, rice, and other proviſions for our journey over the hungry deſart. Next day the Governor invited the Ambaſſador to ſee ſome Chineſe perform their exerciſe. We accordingly walked into an adjacent field, where we found about four thouſand infantry drawn up in ſix lines. All their guns had match-locks; the field officers were on horſe-back, armed with bows and arrows; but the ſubalterns on foot having ſpears, longer or ſhorter, according to their rank. All the troops kept a profound ſilence till the commanding officer ordered the ſignal to be given for beginning the exerciſe, which was done by firing a ſmall gun from the back of a camel. Upon this ſignal they advanced, retreated, and performed their evolutions in a very regular manner.

The 12th, we arrived at the gates of the main wall, which we found open, and having taken a repaſt with the commanding officer, proceeded on our journey. From the courſe of the rivers I found it was very evident that the hungry deſert was higher than any part of China or Siberia. The Ambaſſador, in order to avoid travelling with heavy baggage, determined to go by the ſhorteſt way to Se-

linginſky. The party conſiſted of the Ambaſſa Mr. Kreſtitz, and myſelf. We rode very har the 14th, and in the evening took up our lodg in a Mongalian tent along with the family. outſide of the tent was hung round with ſe pieces of horſe-fleſh, on which our landlord and wife ſupped, and invited us to ſhare the repaſt; as we had proviſions of our own we deſired t excuſed. The diſagreeable ſmell of this ſu made us reſolve to ſleep in the fields for the fut till we came to Selinginſky. Next day, having freſh horſes, we proceeded on our journey. Not of moment occured till the 3d of April, when arrived on the banks of the river Tola. It was nineteen days, that we had rode very hard, this was the firſt running water that we had I cannot help taking notice of the pleaſure that peared in every face at the ſight of this ſtream: my own part, I thought the moſt delicious wine Iſpahan and ſchiras not worthy to be compare this ſimple element, ſo little prized by thoſe enjoy it in plenty. Our bread was all ſpent ſ days before: however, we had ſtill ſome mutton which we had been ſupplied during our jour All this time we obſerved no road, but kept days journey to the northward of our former ro The greateſt danger attending this way of travell aroſe from the arrows which the Mongalls ha in ſtrong bent bows, covered with ſand, for kil antelopes. One of our horſes happened to t on one of theſe bows, the arrow immediately out, and moſt fortunately hit the ſtirrup-iron; ot wiſe the horſe or rider would have been killed u the ſpot. We had, indeed, guides to conduct from place to place, but they were unacquai with any ſnares laid beyond their own bounds.

This day, about noon, ſome Mongals unluc *ſet fire to* the long graſs before us, which, by m

of a ſtrong wind, ſoon ſpread to a great diſtance. We immediately retired to the top of a neighbouring hill, and, ſetting fire to the graſs around us, travelled near a mile in a diſmal cloud of ſmoke. Some of our people, who were behind us and unprovided with flints, were put to hard ſhifts, having their hair and cloaths all ſinged.

The 6th of April, we came to the rivulet Saratzin, the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe territories; and the 7th at Selinginſky. The 16th, we arrived at a monaſtery on the Baykall ſea. We croſſed the ſea upon the ice, and the 19th got to Irkutſky: we waited here for our baggage, which did not arrive till the 2d of July. The 5th of that month we rowed down the Angara. The 14th, we left that river and entered the Tonguſky, a mighty ſtream; and the 24th, to the conflux of the Tonguſky and the Yeniſey: theſe two rivers joined, form one of the largeſt in the world: I think it greater than the Volga at Aſtrachan. Aug. 2d, we left Yeniſeyſky. The 29th, we entered the famous river Oby, which, from its breadth and depth of water, appears equal to the Volga, and could carry ſhips of conſiderable burthen.

Sept. 1ſt, having got new rowers, we put off in fine calm weather, and rowed down the Oby at a great rate, being favoured by the rapidity of the current. The Oſteaks, I have mentioned more than once, differ from all the natives of Siberia, both in complexion and language. In ſummer they live in woods, in huts covered with bark. In winter they dig pits, acroſs which they lay ſtakes, ſpread earth on them, to keep them warm: they have a fire in the middle, and a hole above it to let out the ſmoke; living then chiefly on fiſh dried and ſmoked, wild fowl, or what elſe they can catch in hunting. Many of them are ſtout fellows, fit for any ſervice. Two of them, with their bows and arrows, a ſhort ſpear,

and a little dog, will attack the greateſt bear: they are dextrous archers and fiſhermen. We had always a number of them in canoes round our barques, who ſupplied us with plenty of fiſh and wild fowl for a little tobacco, or a dram of brandy.

The 10th, we arrived at Surgute. On the banks of the Oby about this place are found great quantities of that kind of ivory, which is here called Mammon's Horn. Some of it is alſo found on the banks of the Volga. They appear clearly to be the teeth of large elephants. But how they came ſo far north, where elephants cannot live, is a queſtion which I cannot determine.

The 29th, we met the ice floating on the river Irtiſh. Theſe and other ſigns of approaching winter made Mr. Iſmaylof leave the barques to come as they could, and taking me in a ſmall boat to make the beſt of the way to Tobolky, where we arrived, Oct. 2d, and the 5th the barques arrived. We were obliged to wait here for the falling of the ſnow, in order to proceed on ſledges.

Before I leave this place it will be proper to make a few obſervations on Siberia. Foreigners are generally terrified at the name of Siberia; but from what I have ſaid concerning it, I preſume it will appear not ſo bad as generally imagined. On the contrary, the country is really excellent, and abounds with all things neceſſary for man and beaſt. There is no want of any thing but people to cultivate a fruitful ſoil, well watered by many of the nobleſt rivers in the world, and theſe ſtored with variety of ſuch fine fiſh as are ſeldom found in any other countries. As to fine woods, furniſhed with all ſorts of game and wild fowl no country can exceed it. It is generally a plain, ſometimes varied with riſing grounds, but contains no high mountains, and few hills, except towards the borders of China, where you find many pleaſant hills and fruitful valleys.

Conſidering

Conſidering the extent and many advantages it poſſeſſes, it is ſufficient to contain all the nations in Europe, where they might enjoy a more comfortable life than many of them do at preſent. For my part, I think, that had a perſon his liberty, and a few friends, there are few places where he could ſpend life more agreeably than in ſome parts of Siberia. Towards the north, indeed, the winter is long, and extremely cold. There are, alſo, many dreary waſtes, and deep woods, terminated only by great rivers, or the ocean; but theſe I would leave to the preſent inhabitants, the honeſt Oſteaks and Tonguſes.

Nov. 18th, the roads being now firm and fit for ſledges, we left Tobolsky in a ſtrong froſt, and arrived at Moſcow the 5th of January, 1722, where we found his Czariſh Majeſty making preparations to celebrate the peace with Sweden.

Minutes from the Journal of the reſidence of M. de Lange, at the court of Pekin, during the years 1721 *and* 1722. *Written by himſelf.*

THIS Journal contains ſeveral curious particulars concerning China; but as the regular occurrences regiſtered are not of equal importance, it has been thought beſt to make extracts of the moſt intereſting paſſages only. He was left at Pekin by the Ruſſian Ambaſſador, in order to negociate the allowance of Ruſſian caravans to China, and the ſettlement of the limits of the two empires.

The deceaſed Emperor of China (to whom the embaſſy before regiſtered was ſent) held the great lords of China very cheap, for he well knew that in their hearts they bore the Tartar yoke very impatiently. Nevertheleſs, ſince the ſevere executions he ordered in the beginning of his reign, he ſeldom puniſhed with death the great Chineſe Mandarins

who fell into diſgrace, contenting himſelf with condemning them to pay exorbitant pecuniary fines, which incapacitated them from doing any thing againſt his authority.

The Princes of the houſe of the Tartars, who at preſent reign in China, have learned, at the expence of their predeceſſors, that they ought not to depend too much upon the fidelity of the Chineſe; for this reaſon, all the military of the empire is, in a manner, compoſed of Mongal Tartars, who, on that account, enjoy conſiderable privileges, which makes them very inſolent, and almoſt inſupportable to the Chineſe. And as the number of theſe Tartars were not deemed ſufficient to curb the Chineſe, conſidering the vaſt extent of the empire, the late Emperor found it neceſſary, in order to augment their number, to make a law, whereby all the Tartar Mongalls, men or women, who ſhould marry with Chineſe, were obliged to bring up their children according to the cuſtoms of the Mongalls, and to teach them the Mongall's language; and that by means of this precaution, all thoſe children ſhould be deemed naturalized Mongalls, and enjoy the privilege of native Mongalls *.

The Chineſe regard their ancient laws and cuſtoms as ſacred and inviolable; they conſented, therefore, with great reluctance, to the reſidence of a Ruſſian Agent at Pekin: it was directly contrary to the fundamental conſtitutions of the empire, which abſolutely forbid the Chineſe to go out of it, or foreigners to come in to abide in it.

The commerce between Ruſſia and China is, at preſent, a monopoly belonging to the treaſury of Si-

* It appears from hence that the accounts we have had of the policy of the Tartars aſſimilating with the Chineſe, in order to form one people, and appointing a Tartar and a Chineſe equally to poſts, *are either* falſe, or at an end; for the account here given is utterly *incompatible* with ſuch policy.

beria;

beria; no other ſubjects of Ruſſia being to concern themſelves in it, on pain of death, unleſs employed by the crown. By virtue of the laſt treaty they can ſend no more than one caravan a year from Siberia to Pekin, which doth not conſiſt of more than two hundred perſons, inſtead of a thouſand, or more, which they amounted to heretofore, and which were ſubſiſted at the charge of the Emperor of China, whilſt they were in the territories of China, but now they are to ſubſiſt upon their own charges.

As to the trade of Pekin, the people of Korea, who are tributary, come twice a year there, and bring paper, fans, mats, tobacco, cotton-ſtuffs, dry fiſh, &c. and take in return, raw-ſilk, damaſk, tea, china-ware, cotton, &c. They are treated entirely as foreigners, and looked upon with as ſuſpicious an eye: they bring with them large ſums in ſilver, in Spaniſh pieces-of-eight and Dutch dollars, which ſhews that the inhabitants have ſome trade with Japan, or elſewhere, contrary to the poſitive prohibition of the Chineſe.

The Chineſe have not, in a manner, any trade with the Indies, for it is ſeparated from the Indian nations by ſandy deſerts impaſſable by merchants; and the other provinces of India by mountains very difficult to paſs, which in a manner hinder all commerce between thoſe countries. The trade they carry on with Batavia, Bengal, the Philippine Iſlands and Goa, is entirely by ſtealth. The greateſt part of the Chineſe who are diſperſed in ſeveral places of the Eaſt-Indies for the ſake of commerce, are the poſterity of thoſe who left China when the Mongal Tartars made themſelves maſters of that empire; and they have no other than clandeſtine communication with their Chineſe countrymen. They are eaſily known by their long hair, which is natural to them; inſtead of which the Chineſe ſubjects of the Tartars

are obliged, under pain of death, to cut their hair ſhort, like the Kalmucks and Mongalls.

The Bucharians come to Pekin from the frontiers of Perſia and Indoſtan, and bring cornelians and gold-duſt, which they exchange for damasks, tea, tobacco, china-ware, and ſilver.

The moſt valuable furniture of lacquered ware, viz. cabinets, chairs, tables, baskets, and other things of that ſort, as alſo the richeſt porcelain-ware, come from Japan: when the Emperor ſends any perſon thither in a public character, the princes and great men of the court procure ſuch things: all merchandize from Japan being contraband in China.

Merchants and perſons in trade are greatly oppreſſed; every great man thinking he has an undoubted right to form pretenſions upon a man that lives by trade: for this reaſon, all merchants and others, of any lucrative trade, put themſelves under the protection of ſome one or other of the Princes of the Blood, or other great Lords or Miniſters; and without ſuch a protection, a merchant muſt be an undone man at Pekin: and if any of them are ſo imprudent as to attempt obtaining ſatisfaction by the way of juſtice, they fall from bad to worſe.

Hunting is the favourite employment of the Tartars. The Emperor mixed much of the Politician with this amuſement; for going every year a hunting, eſcorted by a body of the army, conſiſting of fifty or ſixty thouſand men, compleatly armed, and generally travelling an hundred leagues in this manner, this monarch thereby inured his courtiers and his troops to the uſe of arms and to fatigues, and prevented them from falling into the ſoft and indolent manner of living peculiar to the Chineſe.

Though the Chan of the Weſtern Mongalls is tributary to the Chineſe, they have nevertheleſs a great regard for him at the court of Pekin; the more, as he is a very powerful Prince, and that in caſe

aſe of a revolt in China, it is from him that the pre-ent imperial houſe is to expect the greateſt aſſiſtance; is ſubjects being beyond compariſon much better oldiers than the Mongall Chineſe; inſomuch, that f he ſhould be diſobliged, and ſhould join himſelf o the Kalmucks, or to the Ruſſians, nothing could prevent his entrance into China when he pleaſed, and probably bring about another revolution.

Relation of a Journey to Derbent, in Perſia, with the army of Ruſſia, commanded by Peter I, in 1722.

UPON my return from the embaſſy to Pekin, as formerly mentioned, I found his Majeſty with the court, army, and nobility, aſſembled at Moſcow, upon account of the peace with Sweden; and the feſtivals being ended, his Majeſty prepared to undertake an expedition into Perſia, at the earneſt requeſt of Shah Huſſein, the Sophi of Perſia, in order to aſſiſt that Prince againſt the Affgans, his rebellious ſubjects, who, under the conduct, firſt of Myrvais, afterwards of Myr Mahmut, had not only ſeized upon the city and ſtrong fortreſs of Candahar, but alſo had poſſeſſed themſelves of ſeveral provinces on the frontiers, towards India. As I had formerly been at the court of Perſia, I was engaged by my friend Dr. Blumentroſt, his Majeſty's chief phyſician, to accompany him in that expedition.

Accordingly, about the beginning of May, 1722, all things neceſſary being in readineſs, the troops embarked at Moſcow, on board of half-gallies built for that purpoſe, and fell down the river. May 13th, their Majeſties, and all appointed to attend them, ſet out from Moſcow. The 15th, his Majeſty reviewed his troops, and inſpected the condition of the fleet: it conſiſted of about three hundred ſail of veſſels of all ſorts, on board of which were fifteen thou-

ſand regular troops. The 16th, he went on board a magnificent galley, built on purpoſe. The 17th, the ſignal was given by firing three great guns from the galley, for the fleet to get under ſail. The galley led the way, and all the reſt of the fleet followed in a line. His Majeſty's galley carried the ſtandard of Ruſſia; the other veſſels their enſigns diſplayed, with drums beating and muſick playing, which, all together, made an appearance perhaps not to be equalled in any other country. June 8th, we arrived at Cazan, and the 20th, at Saratoff, at which place the Emperor had appointed an interview with Ayuka Chan, King of the Kalmucks. The Chan, for that purpoſe, had his tents pitched on the eaſt banks of the Volga. He and his Queen were invited to dinner next day on board the galley. He came on horſeback, attended by two Princes his ſons, and a troop of fifty of his officers and great men, all exceedingly well mounted. About twenty yards from the ſhore the King alighted from his horſe, and was received by a Privy Counſellor and an officer of the guards. When the Emperor ſaw him advancing, he went on ſhore, ſaluted him, and, taking him by the hand, conducted him on board the galley, where he introduced him to the Empreſs, ſeated on the quarter-deck. Soon after the Queen arrived, in a covered wheel-machine, and the Emperor conducted her on board.

The Ayuka Chan is about ſeventy years old, but hearty and cheerful; a Prince of great wiſdom and prudent conduct, much reſpected by his neighbours; and I recollect, that, when at Pekin, the Emperor of China made very honourable mention of him. The Emperor intimated to the Chan, that he would be deſirous of ten thouſand of his troops to accompany him into Perſia. The Chan replied, that ten thouſand were at the Emperor's ſervice, but that he thought

thought one half of that number would be more than ſufficient to anſwer all his purpoſes; and immediately gave orders for five thouſand to march directly to join the Emperor at Terkey. The Emperor and Empreſs were highly pleaſed with their gueſts, and in the evening diſmiſſed them with ſuitable preſents.

July the 4th, we arrived at Aſtrachan: the 6th, the dragoons were ordered to march to Terkey. The 8th, the Lord High Admiral Apraxin arrived with the fleet and troops on board. The 19th, we got into the Caſpian ſea, and the 24th anchored at Terkey. This place is a frontier ſtrongly ſituated by nature, and well fortified. It has a garriſon of about one thouſand regular troops and Coſſacks, and is at all times well ſtored with ammunition and proviſions. The 27th, the fleet ſailed to the bay of Agrachan. The 28th, the imperial ſtandard was ſet up on ſhore, and all the troops landed and encamped. Auguſt the 2d, ten thouſand Coſſacks arrived from the river Don, all horſemen, and five thouſand Kalmucks mentioned before: they were all well mounted, and had many ſpare horſes, which were of great uſe. The 30th, we arrived at Derbent, a frontier town belonging to the Shah of Perſia: about three miles from the place, the Governor, attended by his officers of diſtinction, came to wait on the Emperor, and to preſent him with the golden keys of the town, and the citadel. A garriſon was placed here, with a ſupply of cannon and ammunition: here we waited for the tranſports with proviſions, ſtores, &c. from Aſtrachan, which arrived ſafely; but, the night following, by a ſtorm were driven aſhore and wrecked. This obliged the Emperor to put off a farther entrance into an exhauſted country, and return to Aſtrachan, leaving a garriſon in Derbent.

That place may be called the key to the Perſian empire on this ſide. The ſituation is very pleaſant, riſing gradually, from the ſea to the top of the hill,

hill, commanding a very extenſive proſpect: near the town are many large vineyards, producing plenty of grapes, of which they make a conſiderable quantity of wine both red and white. They have alſo fruitful plains in the neighbourhood. The country of Daggeſtan is ſituated between the Euxine and the Caſpian ſeas, and to the South is bordered by Gurgiſtan, commonly called Georgia. It is under three chieftans, both the Sophi and the Ottoman Porte lay claim to the Sovereignty, but of late years, thoſe people truſting to their own valour and the natural ſtrength of the country, pay little regard to either of theſe mighty monarchs, who ſometimes threaten them, and at other times court their friendſhip. The whole extent of the country is hilly, with ſome mountains of great height. But they have fruitful valleys producing corn, vines, and fruit; beſides a breed of excellent ſaddle horſes, they have great ſtore of cattle, particularly ſheep, which produce the fineſt wool I have ſeen in any part. Their women are eſteemed to be the moſt beautiful of any in Aſia. One article I cannot omit concerning their laws of hoſpitality, which is, if their greateſt enemy comes under their roof for protection, the landlord, of what condition ſoever, is obliged to keep him ſafe from all manner of harm or violence during his abode with him, and even to conduct him ſafely through his territories to a place of ſecurity.

Before I quit this expedition, I am deſirous of bringing the reader in ſome meaſure acquainted with the character of the magnanimous commander of it. I had during it daily frequent opportunities of ſeeing that great man, Peter I; and during the whole time, was in company and converſed with thoſe people who attended his perſon for very many years.

About the middle of October 1714, I arrived at Cronſtadt in an Engliſh ſhip: the Czar, having notice of the ſhip's arrival, came on board the next morning

morning from Peterſburgh, being attended only by Dr. Areſkine, who was his chief phyſician at that time, and on that occaſion ſerved him as interpreter: after his Majeſty had enquired news about the Swediſh fleet, &c. he eat a piece of bread and cheeſe, and drank a glaſs of ale, then went on ſhore to viſit the works carrying on at Cronſtadt; and returned the ſame evening in his boat to Peterſburgh: diſtance about twenty Engliſh miles.

The firſt winter after my arrival at Peterſburgh, I lodged at Mr. Noy's, an Engliſh ſhip-builder in the Czar's ſervice: one morning before day-light, my ſervant came and told me, that the Czar was at the door. I got up and ſaw him walking up and down the yard, the weather being ſeverely cold and froſty, without any one to attend him. Mr. Noy ſoon came and took him into the parlour, where his Majeſty gave him ſome particular directions about a ſhip then on the ſtocks, which, having done, he left him.

His perſon was graceful, tall, and well made; clean and very plain in his apparel. He generally wore an Engliſh drab-colour ſtock, never appearing in a dreſs ſuit of cloaths, unleſs on great feſtivals, and remarkable holydays; on which occaſions he was ſometimes dreſſed in laced cloaths, of which ſort he was not owner of above three or four ſuits. When he was dreſſed he wore the order of Saint Andrew; at other times he had no badge or mark of any order on his perſon. His equipage was ſimple, without attendants. In ſummer a four-oared wherry was always attending to carry him over the river, if he ſhould want to croſs it, which he frequently did. When he went about the town by land, he always made uſe of an open two wheeled chaiſe, attended by two ſoldiers or grooms, who rode before, and a page who ſometimes ſtood behind the chaiſe, and often ſat in it by his Majeſty, and drove him. In the winter he made uſe of a ſledge, drawn

drawn by one horſe, with the ſame attendants. He found theſe to be the moſt expeditious ways of conveyance, and uſed no other. He was abroad every day in the year, unleſs confined at home by illneſs, which rarely happened; ſo that ſeldom a day paſſed but he was ſeen in almoſt every part of the city.

I have more than once ſeen him ſtop in the ſtreets to receive petitions from perſons, who thought themſelves wronged by ſentences paſſed in courts of judicature. On taking the petition the perſon was told to come next day to the ſenate; where the affair was immediately examined and determined, if the nature of it would admit its being done in ſo ſhort a time. It will naturally follow that ſuch free acceſs to his perſon, was not only productive of great relief to many poor widows and orphans, but alſo a ſtrong check upon Judges; and tended very much to prevent any ſort of influence prevailing on them to pronounce unjuſt ſentences, for which they were ſo likely to be called to an account.

The Czar might with great truth be called a Man of buſineſs; for he could diſpatch more affairs in a morning, than a houſeful of ſenators could do in a month. He roſe almoſt every morning in winter-time before four o'clock, was often in his cabinet by three o'clock, where two private ſecretaries and certain clerks paid conſtant attendance. He often went ſo early to the ſenate as to occaſion the ſenate to be raiſed out of their beds to attend him there. When aſſembled, after hearing cauſes between ſubject and ſubject, or public affairs regarding the interior of the empire, read by the Secretary, and the opinion of the ſenate recited thereupon, he would write upon the proceſs or affair under deliberation, with his own hand, in a very laconic ſtyle, "Let it "be according to the decree of the ſenate." And *ſome times* would add ſome particular alterations

ſuch as he thought fit to mention, and under-wrote PETER.

He knew ſo little of relaxation of mind when awake, that he never allowed his time of reſt to be broke in upon, unleſs in caſe of fire. When any accident of that kind happened in any part of the town, there was a ſtanding order to awake him on the firſt appearance, and he was frequently the firſt at the fire, where he always remained giving the neceſſary orders till all further danger was over. This example of paternal regard of the Czar for his ſubjects, was of courſe followed by all the great officers and thoſe of the firſt quality, which was frequently the means of ſaving many thouſands of his ſubject from utter ruin, whoſe houſes and goods, without ſuch ſingular aſſiſtance, muſt have ſhared the fate of their ruined neighbours.

In acts of religion he appeared devout, but not ſuperſtitious. I have ſeen him at his public devotions in church many times. I have been preſent, when His Majeſty, not liking the clerk's manner of reading the pſalms, hath taken the book from him, and read them himſelf; which he did very diſtinctly, and with proper emphaſis.

During the whole courſe of his life, he avoided all ſorts of ceremony, except on public occaſions. His manner of living in his houſe, was more like that of a private gentleman, than of ſo great a monarch. I was once at court on a holiday, when the Emperor came home from church to dinner with a large attendance of his miniſters, General officers, and other great men: his table was laid with about fifteen covers. As ſoon as the dinner was ſerved up, he and the Empreſs took their places; and his Majeſty, addreſſing himſelf to the company, ſaid, "Gentlemen pleaſe to take your places as far "as the table will hold, the reſt will go home and "*dine with their wives.*"

This

This great monarch took all the pains, and uſed all the means poſſible in order to be intimately acquainted with every thing proper for a man, who ruled a mighty empire, to know: he entered into the detail of every branch of the arts uſeful to mankind; into that of all the manufactures, which regarded the conſtruction of ſhips, and fitting them for the ſea; into that of making arms, artillery, &c. If he had a ruling paſſion for any one part of theſe acquirements, it muſt have been for ſhip-building, into which he entered himſelf very early in the quality of a common workman with his hatchet, and proceeded regularly through all the degrees to the rank of maſter builder, which he attained but a few years before his death: after he got that length in the art, he made the draughts, formed the mouldings, and directed the building of ſeveral men of war of the ſecond and third rates himſelf; and he duly demanded and received his ſalary as a maſter builder. The day of launching the ſhips, which he himſelf built, he celebrated as a holiday, and put on laced cloaths; but before he went to work to ſtrike away the ſtanchions, blocks, &c. he always put off his fine coat.

He was very frugal in what related to his perſonal expences, and thoſe of his houſehold. Notwithſtanding his frugality in what related to himſelf, he ſpared no coſt in whatever concerned the publick, in the ſtructure of his men of war, in the artillery, fortifications, arſenals, canals, &c. all which bore marks of very great magnificence.

An account of a journey to Conſtantinople, in part of 1737 *and* 1738.

THE congreſs for a peace between the empires of Ruſſia and Turkey, being diſſolved in 1737, without ſucceſs; the court of Ruſſia reſolved to ſend

a per-

a perſon to Conſtantinople, with new propoſals of accommodation, and as no ſubjects of Ruſſia or Germany are admitted into the dominions of the Grand Seignior, whilſt he is at war with thoſe powers, I was prevailed upon to undertake the journey at the earneſt deſires of Count Oſterman, Chancellor of Ruſſia.

On the 6th of Dec. 1737, I ſet out from Saint Peterſburgh with only one ſervant, who underſtood the Turkiſh language; the 9th, I arrived at Moſcow; the 15th at Glukova, the firſt town in the Ukrain, a large and populous place: the 16th I paſſed through Batturin: the country adjacent is very pleaſant and exceeding fruitful, being moſtly plain, interſperſed with woods of oak and other timber. What is remarkable and demonſtrative of the great fertility of the ſoil, is, that they have about ſixty water-mills for grinding corn, all built within the diſtance of two Engliſh miles. At Neſhin, for want of ſnow on the ground, I was obliged to leave my convenient ſledge, and ride all the reſt of the way on horſeback.

The 18th I paſſed the Boryſthenes: the city of Kioff ſtands on a high hill, and overlooks the river, and a ſpacious plain to the eaſtward as far as your eye can reach: there are ſeveral vineyards about the town: it is adorned with many magnificent churches, and a univerſity of conſiderable repute in theſe parts. This part of the country, commonly called Ukrain, doth, for fertility of ſoil and rich paſturage, exceed moſt parts of Europe, producing vaſt quantities of various ſorts of grain, the crops of which are always very great, as well as of hemp and flax of the moſt excellent quality, and that with little labour; for they plough the ground with one horſe only, and with but one man, who holds the plough, and drives the horſe at the ſame time.

The

The Ukrain produces good horſes for the ſ
and large-ſized black cattle in very great nu
more than ſufficient for their own uſe, and for
plying their neighbours with as good beef a
world affords. The woods are well-ſtored with
of divers ſorts, as are the rivers and ponds
fiſh. Aſparagus grows in ſuch plenty as t
termed weed. The people are very civil and
pitable among themſelves, and alſo to all ſtran
living very clean and neat in their houſes.

The 21ſt I entered Poland; and the 30th
davia: Jan. 3d, after paſſing the river Pruth,
to Jaſſy, where the Prince would not let me proce
rectly to Conſtantinople, but appointed an eſc
Bender, where was the Seraſkier, who hac
chief command in theſe parts. From Soro
Jaſſy the country is ſomewhat hilly, the ſoil
the paſturage excellent. About the river Pru
fine woods of various ſorts of timber: about
and in other parts there are large vineyards prod
great abundance of wine of inferior quality
greateſt part of which is conſumed in P
From Jaſſy to Kiſhanoff the country is very
but towards Bender it grows more dry and b
More than two thirds of Moldavia lies waſte
time: it ſeems to have been an eſtabliſhed ſyſt
Turkiſh politicks, to depopulate all the cou
bordering on Chriſtendom, reſerving no more
may be ſufficient to furniſh their garriſons and
with proviſions.

I arrived in the camp near Bender the 8th
was not allowed to proceed to Conſtantinople
13th. The 15th we arrived at Iſmayl, ſtandi
the north bank of the famous river Danube,
may at this place be compared with the V
Aſtrachan. The 17th we arrived at Babba
where is ſuppoſed the poet Ovid was baniſhed.
24th to Kanara. I cannot but take notice o

fine country, adorned with many beautiful woods and coppices, a very rich ſoil, and excellent paſture; but a great deal of it lies waſte, and it is but thinly peopled. The 28th I arrived at a country-houſe near Conſtantinople, belonging to Muſtapha Caſſa Baſha, the chief Butcher to the Sultan, a place of great truſt and honour. The 29th I was allowed to proceed, and was conducted to Conſtantinople. I was ſhewed to the houſe of Muſtapha, and afterwards fixed in that of Sir Everard Fawkener, the Britiſh Ambaſſador, in whoſe houſe I lodged during my abode at Conſtantinople.

That city ſtands in one of the moſt delightful ſituations in the world. At a diſtance it makes a very fine appearance, having a great number of gilded ſpires and domes; but when you enter the city, the general irregularity and narrowneſs of the ſtreets do in no degree correſpond with the magnificent appearance it makes at a diſtance. A very great nuiſance attending this place is, its being peſtered with a great number of naſty dogs which belong to nobody: they kennel in every corner of the ſtreets: it is unlawful to kill them; and they are generally fed, which is looked upon by the Turks as an act of charity.

I do not think the number of inhabitants exceeds four hundred thouſand. The haven, which divides the city from the diſtrict called Pera, for its extent and depth of water, may, probably, equal, perhaps ſurpaſs, the beſt in the known world, well fenced on all ſides, with riſing grounds. Near the bottom of the haven is a ſpacious and moſt convenient yard for building ſhips and galleys, with ſuitable magazines and warehouſes for keeping the cordage, guns, ammunition, &c. for building and fitting men of war and galleys.

In Turkey there are few families who have any diſtinguiſhing titles, or honours, appertaining to them.

them. All places of profit and power depend on the Sultan's favour, which dies with the poſſeſſor. The only two families which have a juſt claim to nobility, are thoſe of Dgiggal Oglu, and Kuperly, who, for ſignal ſervices done to the empire, have peculiar privileges; one in particular, that the Sultan, as it is ſaid, cannot condemn them to death. Beſides theſe, there are the deſcendants of Mahomet, of whom there are great numbers, who are diſtinguiſhed by wearing green, and enjoy ſome privileges.

April 8th, I ſet out from Conſtantinople, and the 13th got to Adrianople: it is ſituated in a pleaſant country. Purſuing my journey, without any thing material happening, I arrived the 17th of May at Peterſburgh.

The diſtances from Peterſburgh to Conſtantinople, in Engliſh miles are: From Peterſburgh to Kioff, one thouſand and fifty-one; from Kioff to Soroka, the frontier of Moldavia, two hundred and fifty-three: from Soroka to Jaſſy, ſeventy-two; from Jaſſy to Bender, eighty-one; from Bender to Iſmayl, eighty-ſeven; from Iſmayl to Conſtantinople, three hundred and eighty-one: in all one thouſand nine hundred and twenty-five.

OBSERVATIONS.

[THE reader will not do juſtice to the preceding travels, if he does not conſider them in the higheſt eſtimation. The firſt article which deſerves his attention is authenticity. Perhaps there never was a journal written which carried ſuch evident marks of authenticity as thoſe of Mr. Bell. A critic does not lay his finger on a ſingle paſſage which has the leaſt appearance of being doubtful. This account of China is the only one we have, upon which entire dependance is to be placed. It is an account which

is

rely conſiſtent, and which refutes a thouſand r errors. The anecdotes he has given of Peter reat, are ſuch as will be eſteemed as long as the y of that greateſt of modern names ſhall be an t of public curioſity. I ſhall not entirely diſ- Mr. Bell without remarking, that the manly, ged, and liberal ſpirit with which he has done e to nations too commonly called barbarous, equal proof of his humanity and his penetration.]

THE

THE

TRAVE

OF

FREDERICK LEWIS NO

THROUGH

EGYPT and NUB

A deſcription of ancient Alexand

ANCIENT Alexandria was ſubjec revolutions, and was ſo often def were it not for its ports, and other mo antiquity, we ſhould ſcarce be able to f place it ſtood on.

The ports of Alexandria, now calle and the New; were formerly named Africa, and of Aſia. The former is to the Turks; the latter is free indiſcri all the nations of Europe. That whic the Turks, is cleaner and deeper than where there is a neceſſity of fixing empty the cables, in order to prevent their bei by the continued friction of a ſtony botto this precaution ſheaths the cables from ſhips are in a perpetual riſk of being lo anchors not having a ſufficient hold, gale of wind ſets them adrift, and they

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in the harbour; there being neither ſailing-room, nor holding-ground to fix their anchors anew.

The entrance of the new port is defended by two caſtles of a contemptible Turkiſh ſtructure, and have nothing remarkable but their ſituation, and their being unworthy ſucceſſors to edifices celebrated in hiſtory.

That called the grand Phillaro *, bears on the middle of it a ſmall tower, whoſe ſummit terminates in a lantern for a night-light, but is is of no extenſive ſervice, the lamps being but poorly ſupplied. This caſtle has been built on the Iſle of Pharos, which it ſo occupies, that if there yet be any remains of that wonder of the world erected by Ptolomy, they are irrecoverably buried from the curious. I cannot ſpeak more favourably of the other caſtle, called the little Pharillo, wherein there is not the leaſt trace to be found of the celebrated library, which, under the Ptolomies, was admired as the fineſt, not only then, but that had ever been in the world.

Each of theſe two iſlands is joined to the main land, by a mole: that of the iſle of Pharos is very long, it appeared to me to be three thouſand feet in length, and to have been made partly of bricks, and partly of free-ſtone. It is vaulted all along: the molds of its arches are in the Gothic taſte. Water can run underneath, in which it reſembles the remains of the Mole at Puzzoli, which is commonly given for the bridge of Caligula. It is no way probable that either the Saracens, or the Turks, were the inventors; but that finding the mole in ruins, they have ſo disfigured it with their taſteleſs repairs, that there remaineth not a feature of beautiful antiquity.

* From Pharos, which ſignifies a light-houſe.

The

The mole that leads to the little Pharillo has nothing remarkable but two zigzags, which may ſerve for its defence.

The Pharillos and their moles, the one on the right, the other on the left hand of the port, conduct us a-ſhore almoſt before we aware of being at land. I think it not amiſs to give travellers this caution, that preciſely at the entrance of the port, they muſt paſs by rocks, ſome of which are under, and others above the water: keep clear of them by all means; therefore, take one of the Turkiſh pilots, who are there eſpecially appointed to take charge of ſtrange veſſels. They ſail out in boats to meet all they deſcry making towards the port. It would be an imprudent œconomy to decline employing one of them; by the help of whoſe experience, you will come not only ſafe into the harbour, but alſo to the propereſt place for caſting anchor with the other ſhips, which are alſo counter-anchored along the extenſive mole, as the deepeſt place to ride in with ſafety.

From thence opens a moſt beautiful proſpect of antique and modern monuments, preſenting themſelves on every ſide. The little Pharillo being paſſed, a range of towers is diſcovered, connected one to the other, by the ruins of a thick wall. A ſingle obeliſk erected, is obſerved through a part where the wall is broken down; at another turning the towers are perceived anew, but in a ſeemingly greater diſtance. The modern Alexandria, with her ſpires, next meet the view; and above the city, but afar off ſoars the column of Pompey, a moſt aſpiring and majeſtic monument. Here alſo are ſeen, hills of an aſhy complexion, intermixed with other towers. In fine, the proſpect is cloſed by a large ſquare building, which is uſed as a magazine for powder, and joins to the great mole.

As ſoon as we had landed, we traverſed the new city in queſt of the obeliſk, which we reached, by climbing over ruined walls, from whence, through a tower built of ſtone, there is free acceſs to the foot of this antique monument, which we had ſcarce approached, when we eſpied another almoſt buried by its ſide.

The obeliſk, that is ſtanding, and called even now The Obeliſk of Cleopatra, intimates that this is the place where that Queen's palace ſtood, known likewiſe by the name of Cæſar's palace. But as there are no remains of that ſuperb edifice to animadvert on, I ſhall confine myſelf to the obeliſk, which is ſituated almoſt mid-way, between the city, and the little Pharillo. Its baſis, of which a part is ſunk, riſes twenty feet higher than the level of the ſea: between this monument and the port, runs a thick wall, flanked on each ſide of the obeliſk by a great tower; but this wall has ſuffered ſo much, that it is not now higher than the baſis of the obeliſk. The interior ſide of the wall is but ten feet diſtant from the obeliſk, the exterior but four or five from the ſea. The front of it, far into the port, is filled with a great number of wrecks of columns, frizes, and other pieces of architecture, that muſt have been part of ſome pompous edifice: they are of different ſorts of marble. On the land-ſide, there is, behind the obeliſk, a pretty large plain, the ground whereof, from having been ſo often raked up, looks as if it had all paſſed through a ſieve. Graſs grows ſcantily here and there, and of ſo periſhable a texture, that it ſoon withers. The obeliſk conſiſts of only one piece of granite marble. There are but two of its faces well preſerved; on the two others, we can ſcarce ſee the hieroglyphics with which they were formerly covered.

The fallen obeliſk ſeems to have been broken: from what can be decyphered of its hieroglyphics, one would incline to think that it contained the ſame

figures, and in the ſame order, with thoſe of the ſtanding one.

Since the garriſon forbids any curious viſits to the little Pharillo, let us content ourſelves with taking a view of thoſe huge towers, joined together by ſuch thick walls: they formed the circumference of Ancient Alexandria. Theſe towers, which appear like bulwarks, are not all of equal dimenſions, of a like figure, or of the ſame ſtructure: ſome are round, others ſquare: many are of an elliptic figure; ſome of the laſt are obſerved to be cut in one of their ſides by a ſtrait line: they differ alſo in their interior parts; ſome of them have a double wall, and at the entrance a winding ſtair-caſe, which mounts to the top of the tower. There is no other way to get into the others, but through a hole on the top of them with the help of a ladder. In general, the entrances of theſe towers are very narrow, and lead to the inſide of the wall that connects them one with the other: their different ſtories are ſo many vaults, ſupported in ſome by one column, in others by ſeveral. The embraſures on thoſe bulwarks are narrow, and widen inwards; they are not unlike to thoſe of ſeveral old caſtles in England. Though not a well is now to be ſeen in thoſe towers, we are not therefore to conclude that they had none formerly, which, from their having been neglected, were filled with rubbiſh in a ſeries of time. The architecture of thoſe towers, which are built of free-ſtone, is very clumſy on the loweſt part: all around, at certain intervals, are ſeen ſhapes of columns of different ſorts of marble, and ſo placed, that, ſeen from far, they look like cannons, placed and pointed through their embraſures. The walls which connect the towers, and jointly with them form the circumference of the city, are not throughout of the ſame breadth or height, or of a ſimliar ſtructure; ſome of them are twenty feet thick, others more, *others leſs*; their height is from thirty to forty feet:

within ſide of them there is an alley in the ſame taſte of that to be ſeen in Aurelian's palace at Rome. The towers, as well as the walls, as far as can be ſeen of them, are much damaged, and in ſome places totally ruined.

Having made the tour of the old city, let us examine what it contains worthy of curioſity; ſcarce any thing, it being now a general heap of ruins, except a few moſques, churches, gardens, and ſome ciſterns: the laſt are kept in pretty good order, to ſupply water to the new city.

We have already taken a view of the obeliſk of Cleopatra, and its ſituation; let us now ſee the two churches of Saint Mark and Saint Catherine: they belong to Chriſtians, and are ſerved by Greecian and Coptic prieſts: they are ſo like each other, that one deſcription will ſerve for the two: they have not an article reſpectable but their name: they are ſo gloomy, ſo filthy, and ſo full of lamps, that one would deem them to be rather places of Pagan worſhip, than temples where the true God is adored. In that of Saint Mark there is an old wooden chair, which (as is there ſaid) belonged to him: be that as it may, I can aver, that Evangeliſt is infinitely better lodged at Venice, than in Alexandria. In Saint Catherine's, there is exhibited with great devotion a piece of a column, on which they ſay her head was cut off. Not far from the curch is Saint Catherine's butt, which is a riſing ground formed from the ruins of the city; there is another of the ſame kind and bulk; they have been ſo often raked and examined, that they are now but a mere heap of duſt.

I next continued my way through the gate of Roſetta, to view that maſter-piece of art, commonly called The column of Pompey: it is placed on an eminence that commands two beautiful proſpects; the one of Alexandria, the other of the low country that ſtretches along the banks of the Nile, and ſur-

rounds the canal cut above the gate of Roſetta, in order to convey the water of the Nile to Alexandria. This column is probably the greateſt, and moſt magnificent that has ever been executed in the Corinthian order. I ſhall ſay but little of this ſuperb monument, and refer my readers to the print I have given of it. The body is of one entire piece of granite marble, the capital is of another piece of marble, the pedeſtal is of a grey ſtone not unlike a flint for hardneſs and grain. Its dimenſions are marked in the print referred to. The foundation on which the pedeſtal and columns are raiſed, is open on one ſide, which happened, according to the tradition of the country, in the following manner. An Arabian dug a hole under the foundation, in which he put a box of gunpowder, in order to blow up the column, and thereby to become maſter of the immenſe treaſure he imagined was buried underneath. Unfortunately for him, but happily for the curious, he was a bad engineer; his enterpriſe failed him, for his mine being ſprung, only diſplaced four ſtones, which making but one part of the foundation, the other three remained unhurt. The only advantage reſulting thence is, that the curious have ever ſince had an opportunity of ſeeing what ſtones the foundation was made of. I obſerved there, one piece of white oriental marble, full of conſpicuous hieroglyphics; another piece that has not ſtarted from its place, but is uncovered, is a yellow marble of Sicily, ſpotted with red, its hieroglyphics are effaced: a piece of a ſmall column is alſo employed in this foundation, with other pieces of marble, that have nothing peculiarly remarkable; the part of the foundation that was carried away leaves a void ſpace of three feet at moſt under the pedeſtal. The middle, as well as the three other ſides, enjoy their original ſolidity.

All round the column of Pompey, the proſpect of a naked country fatigues the eye: about a quarter of a league's

a league's diſtance are the catacombs, being a long ſubterraneous alley containing nothing particular, and of the ſame breadth with thoſe of Naples.

Our next excurſion was to Cleopatra's canal, which ſupplies Alexandria throughout the year with freſh water. In our way thither, from the hill we had been on, through a plain where capers grow, we traverſed a foreſt of date-trees: their fertility is owing to the neighbourhood of the canal, from which, through ſmaller channels, water is conveyed to them: the banks of the canal are ſhaded by different ſorts of trees, and occaſionally inhabited by flying camps of wild Arabians: there they feed their flocks, and are miſerably poor in regard to every thing elſe. The original intent of cutting this canal, as hiſtory informs us, was to facilitate commerce between Grand Cairo and Alexandria; by the advantage of navigating thereon, the merchants property was inſured from the danger of croſſing the Bogas, which is the mouth of the Nile; its other uſe we have mentioned above. It is now, from the wretched plight of the people there, in a very decayed condition, almoſt choaked in many parts, ſcarce furniſhing water enough for the reſervoirs of Alexandria. A ſpace incloſed with walls is the beginning of the aqueduct, which can be traced along the plain, even to Alexandria; for though it be under ground, there are vents at certain intervals, which mark its courſe to the reſervoirs, or ciſterns, which are in the parts we ſaw of Antient Alexandria. When ſhe flouriſhed, there were ciſterns and reſervoirs under every part of the city; there now remain but half a dozen, in bad order: it would be ſuperfluous to give a minute deſcription of them, and I ſhall only obſerve, that their vaults are made of brick, and covered with a ſubſtance impenetrable to water, like that on the walls of the piſcennari, or reſervoirs at Baiæ, and at Rome. In the warm baths of ſeveral Emperors, the greater

number of the columns by which theſe vaults are ſupported, are of different ſorts, and moſtly of the Gothic, or rather of the Saracen taſte; which is to be accounted for in the ſame manner, as we have accounted for the architecture of the great mole. Of all the reſervoirs now uſed, that next the gate of Roſetta preſerves its water the longeſt: which may probably be aſcribed to its poſition, being lower than that of the others. When any of them are near empty, they are carefully cleaned againſt the ſwelling of the Nile. Theſe reſervoirs cannot let out their water, but are entirely emptied by chain-pumps. Water is ſent to the new city in veſſels, on the backs of camels or aſſes.

We have but one article more of Ancient Alexdria to treat of, which is the gate of Roſetta, and another, by which people come from the new city to the ancient, through a ſpacious area belonging to the latter: theſe two gates are built in the ſame taſte with the wall and caſtles that ſurround the city. That of Roſetta, has little towers at each angle; the other, which is nearer to the bulwark, has but a plain opening through the wall; its folding-doors are made of timber, and covered with plates of iron extremely ruſty.

Let us now take a turn to the old port, where we ſhall find ſome remains belonging to Ancient Alexdria, or at leaſt to its ſuburbs. The old port, alias the port of Africa, has on one ſide the great Pharillo, which is its defence there, as well as that of the new port. Oppoſite to the great Pharillo, and on the neck of land which forms the old port, there is a ſmall caſtle which defends the port on that ſide; and, in front, a part of the new city joins with the old.

Now let us view the ſepulchral grottos: they begin where the ruins of the ancient city end, and continue to a great diſtance along the ſea-ſhore: they are cut in the rocks, ſometimes one above another,

ſometimes

ſometimes in the ſame line, according as the ſituation of the place permitted. Avarice, or hopes of finding ſomething valuable, hath opened them all: I did not obſerve one ſhut, nor could ſee any thing in them. In general, they are large enough to hold two bodies laid beſide one another, and ſomewhat longer than the common ſtandard of man: their height depends on the nature of the rock: violence has been uſed in opening moſt of them; what remains of them entire, is adorned neither with ſculpture nor painting: it is too barren a ſubject to dwell any longer on; let us rather feaſt our eyes on thoſe agreeable retreats formed by the indenting of the ſhore, where, in a retired and breezy ſituation, the warm votaries of pleaſure indulged, and when they choſe, unſeen themſelves, could ſee every thing that paſſed in the port. Some rocks that advanced farther into the ſea than others, afforded enchanting ſcenes; the natural grots they had formed, invited the ſculptor with his chiſel to come and give a finiſhing hand, and in rocks to execute alcoves of delight; ſeveral ſubſiſt: the benches are ſo managed that you can ſit quite dry, and bathe when you pleaſe; the water of the ſea flowing to a ſufficient depth on the bottom of the grots: without, there are little landing places, whither they came in boats, that were there ſheltered from any ſudden guſts that might ariſe.

About thirty or forty paces from the ſhore, and oppoſite to the point of the peninſula which forms the port, is a ſubterraneous monument, which the people call a temple; the entrance to it is through a ſmall opening, on the ſlope of a riſing ground, that bounds the port on that ſide: we went in, having previouſly provided flambeaus to light us, and were obliged to walk ſtooping through a very low alley for twenty paces; then we reached a pretty large and ſquare ſaloon: the upper part is a ceiling, and ſmooth, as are alſo the four ſides; the floor is full of ſand, of

the ordure of bats, and animals that frequent it: this is not the temple to which one muſt paſs through another alley, where ſomething more elegant recompenſes our trouble; a round figure, whoſe top is cut in ſhape of a vault. It has four doors oppoſite one to the other, each of them is ornamented with an architrave, cornice, and a fronton with a creſcent over it; but one of the doors is the entrance, the other three form each a kind of niche, that deſcend a great deal lower than this ſubterraneous temple, are thriftily ſcooped out of the rock, and large enough to contain a dead body; this miſcalled temple muſt have been the burying place of ſome great lord, or perhaps ſome royal family; there is no inſcription, engraving, or token of any kind, to give the leaſt information. An alley indeed, which leads off from this, inclines us to conclude, that farther on there may be another ſubterraneous edifice of the ſame nature; and ſo at certain diſtances perhaps a continuation; but the paſſages being ſtopped up, through time and negligence, they are now inacceſſible, as will be probably in a few years, the one I ſpeak of.

NEW ALEXANDRIA

May be juſtly looked on as a poor orphan, who has no other inheritance but the reſpectable name of its father. The ancient city's wide extent, is contracted, in the new, to a ſmall neck of land between the two ports. The moſt ſuperb of her temples are dwindled into inconſiderable moſques; her moſt magnificent palaces are degraded into dwelling houſes, of a very paultry ſtructure; the imperial reſidence is debaſed into a priſon for ſlaves. A once wealthy and numerous people are now miſrepreſented by a few intereſted ſtrangers, and a collection of wretches who live in ſordid dependence. A mart, formerly ſo celebrated for its extenſive commerce, is now decayed

to

to a meer landing-place. Alas, it cannot be compared to the pheenix, that from its aſhes ſprings anew into life; no, it is a poor crawling inſect, the ſpawn of filth, and infected by the Alcoran: ſuch is the fallen Alexandria of our days, and therefore undeſerving a formal deſcription.

NEW CAIRO.

I arrived at Grand Cairo on the 7th of July, 1737. This capital of Egypt, which is called plainly Cairo, and by the Arabians Maſſer, is eaſtward of the Nile, a little above the place where the river ſplits to form the Delta. It is divided into two cities, the one called Old Cairo, the other Grand Cairo.

There have been already ſo many deſcriptions publiſhed of this city, and its appendages, that I ſhall remark but on a few particulars, which perhaps may not be thought unworthy of attention.

The firſt relates to the annual ceremony of cutting the dyke of the canal, which, in the time of the ſwelling of the Nile, is to convey its waters to Grand Cairo. This canal, out in the country, looks like a neglected foſſe; when it enters the city, it appears of more conſequence, in flowing by houſes that adorn its banks. It is not very broad either in country or city, and where the Nile runs into it, it has but from fifteen to twenty feet in breadth.

As ſoon as the waters of the Nile begin to riſe, they cloſe the mouth of the canal with a dyke of earth, on which is fixed a ſignal, that is to notify the opening of this and all other canals in the kingdom.

On the appointed day, the Baſha and his Beys, with a numerous retinue, aſſiſt at the ceremony of opening the dyke; they range themſelves under a pavillion of no great elegance near the place. The Egyptians and the Jews are employed to cut the dyke, while ſome of the rabble, in a paultry ſkiff, throw

nuts, melons, &c. into the water, as it enters the canal: the Baſha orders ſome parats to be thrown in, and a ſtarved fire-work, conſiſting of about twenty rockets, to be played off: thoſe rejoicings, ſo much exaggerated by travellers, can boaſt of little more than what may be ſeen at a village-wedding: the only object there to excite curioſity, is the retinue of the great, which, in their way, has a kind of magnificence.

The people, on theſe occaſions, commit a thouſand follies, to witneſs their joy for the ſwelling of the Nile, which inſures to them a plentiful harveſt. The moſt laſcivious dances are not the moſt offenſive expreſſions of their alacrity; for there is hardly a year but ſome lives are loſt in thoſe tumultuous rejoicings.

The next obſervations I have to make, are on the famous well of Joſeph: its mouth is eighteen feet broad, twenty-four long: its depth is two hundred and ſeventy-ſix, from the upper wheel to the bottom of the water: at one hundred and forty-ſix feet depth is a baſon, up to which the water is brought from the bottom, by the means of a ſecond wheel, with a chain of earthen pitchers: this repoſitory is ſomewhat lower than the middle of the well, for downwards after there are but one hundred and thirty feet: this well is elegantly cut in a rock, and with ſo much art, that the rock is a rampart to the deſcending path down its ſide. From ſpace to ſpace there are windows contrived to let in light: by this path the oxen are led down, which put the ſecond wheel in play; from whence, down to the very bottom, is a like deſcent, with this difference indeed, that it is not ſo wide as the upper one, having but four feet in breadth, and ſix in height; moreover, there is no parapet on its ſide: it is covered all the way, which renders the going down very dangerous: at the end of the deſcent is a baſon, or a ſpring of water, about nine or ten

ten feet deep; the taſte is brackiſh; it is never drank but in a ſiege, or ſome other preſſing neceſſity.

Laſtly, I ſhall obſerve, that their commerce, though infinitely greater formerly than it is at preſent, is yet, in my opinion, not in ſo abject a way as to pronounce it totally unworthy of the curious traveller's enquiry.

OLD CAIRO.

This ancient city is ſituated on the bank of the canal that divides the iſle of Rhoda from the main land: its length, to reckon from the machine which raiſes the water of the aqueduct, unto the Baſar, is a quarter of a French league; its breadth is five hundred common paces; the reſt is very unequal, and its extremities terminate in ſingle houſes.

The majority of its buildings (the abodes of working-folks excepted) are pleaſure-houſes, whither repair the diſtinguiſhed inhabitants of Cairo, to divert themſelves, when the waters of the Nile are at the higheſt pitch. There are many gardens: the date-trees and vines occupy a great deal of ground.

At Old Cairo there are half a dozen moſques, with minarets tantamount to our ſpires, with other places of worſhip for different believers. In one of the Coptic churches there is a grot, in which tradition reports the Virgin Mary reſted from the labours of her retreat into Egypt: the fathers of the holy-land pay annually a certain ſum for the privilege of ſaying maſs whenever they pleaſe in the ſaid grotto.

The water-houſe is a work of the Saracens; there are in it four mills, with chains of earthen-pots: oxen are uſed to put them in motion, in order to draw up water to the aqueduct, which conveys it to Grand Cairo.

One of the moſt conſiderable buildings, is Joſeph's Granary: it covers a large ſpace of ground, and is

encircled

encircled by a wall: there is depoſited all the tributary corn paid to the Grand Seignior, by the different cantons of Egypt: there is nothing remarkable or antique in it.

The pleaſure-houſes of the great, anſwer but poorly to the title: they conſiſt of large ſaloons, clumſily arranged, within which are three or four divans, or ſo many little holes that form a kind of labyrinth, from which no other advantage accrues, than that the owner can commodiouſly ſee his wives and ſlaves, without any of their knowing what another is doing.

The city may be ſaid to be entirely open, having but a door to the eaſt, and a fragment of a wall ſince the time of the Saracens.

The canal cut between Grand Cairo and the iſle of Rhoda, is of the greateſt antiquity: it begins at the Baſar, and ends near the water-houſe: it may be walked over without wetting one's foot, when the waters of the Nile are low; but when the river is full, it is navigable by ſmall craft. It is two hundred common paces broad, and a quarter of a French league in length.

In order to continue uninterruptedly the deſcription of Grand Cairo, and its dependencies, let us now conſider Gize, which I have already mentioned: it is a pretty large village, on the weſtern banks of the Nile, oppoſite to Old Cairo, and the iſle of Rhoda: it is built of bricks and mud; the only ornaments it can boaſt, are four or five minarets of moſques, and ſome date-trees.

If certain authors are to be credited, the city of Memphis formerly ſtood where the village of Gize now is; and I confeſs, this opinion is not devoid of probability, though in ſtrictly examining this opinion, conſiderable abatements muſt be made of the grandeur of that ancient capital of Egypt; or we muſt greatly exaggerate the plains in its neighbourhood: for Gize now covers but half the ſpace Old

Cairo

Cairo occupies; and the environing plains never eſcape the overflowings of the Nile. Is it then readily to be believed, that ſo great, ſo famous a city as Memphis, ſhould have been built in a place ſubject to water for one half of the year; or, if ſo, that the ancient authors would have omited ſo particular a circumſtance?

I ſhall annex ſome other remarks I made during my ſtay at Cairo, and in its environs; to wit, their common manner of hatching chickens, is by the means of an oven artfully contrived for that purpoſe. They threſh their rice with a ſledge drawn by oxen, in which kneels the man that drives them, while another carries off the ſtraw, in order to ſeparate it from the grain that remains underneath; before the rice undergoes this operation, it is ſpread circularly, and leaves an empty ſpace in the middle of the layer. There come frequently to Cairo, a ſort of barges on the Nile, carrying ſenna from Eſſenay, they are called by the country people Merkee, I embarked on board one of them to go up the Nile from Cairo.

The graſshopper, as well as the dareira, are remarkable; the former eſpecially for its hieroglyphical front; their body is all over green, excepting a yellow circle that goes round their head, and terminates at the eyes; in length they are about two inches, and the twenty-ſixth part of one, Daniſh meaſure. This inſect has two upper wings, pretty ſolid, and green like the reſt of the body, ſave a little white ſpot upon each: it expands theſe wings like two great ſails, which take in the driving gale: it hath alſo two under-wings, in ſubſtance not unlike to a light tranſparent ſtuff, and in figure to a ſpider's web, which ſerve her the ſame way as the latin ſails do the veſſels, along whoſe ſides they are fixed: when this inſect ſtops, ſhe anchors, by cloſely folding theſe, her check-wings, under the upper. The

dareira

dareira is a kind of gnat, with which in the evening the water is almoſt covered: I believe them to be the foodful object of the bats purſuit on the Nile.

They have a particular kind of float-boat to ferry over the Nile, made of large earthen pitchers tied cloſely together, and covered with palm-tree leaves: the man who ſteers, has commonly a cord hanging from his mouth, with which, as he ſails, he fiſhes.

Take a view of Adam's fig-tree, vulgarly called Bananas, and of the beautiful cypreſs of Old Cairo, of what is now called Pharaoh's hen, and believed to have been the Ibis of the ancients.

Inaſmuch as rain falls but very rarely in Egypt, the author of nature hath, in his infinite wiſdom, ſo diſpoſed of things, that this defect of rain, is happily ſupplied by the river Nile's regularly overflowing every year. Though this effect be ſo generally known, it is ſtrange how erroneouſly people have ſtrove to account, not only for the cauſe, but the manner alſo of cultivating the earth in conſequence.

Authors, who have undertaken to give deſcriptions of Egypt, have thought theſe articles ſo univerſally known, that they have ſcarce entered into any detail about them; ſatisfied in having ſaid, that the fertility of the country derived ſolely from the annual inundation of the Nile, they advanced no farther. Hence many people have been induced to think, that Egypt is a terreſtrial paradiſe, that needs not the trouble of ploughing, or even of ſowing the earth, and where every thing ſprings up ſpontaneouſly, after the departure of the water. It is quite otherwiſe: and I would venture to aſſert, from what I have ſeen, that no country wants more the aid of agriculture, than Egypt does, which is evinced by their many hydraulic machines to water the earth, and the plough which is in uſe near Gamaſis in upper Egypt.

The

The Delta part, which is the moſt frequented, and the moſt cultivated, ſtands leſs in need of mechanical aſſiſtance; for there they only employ a number of mills, to raiſe and diſtribute the water to the different canals, which, in the French language, are commonly called "watering canals." The Delta has beſides a natural advantage from the lowneſs of its ſituation, and being thereby more obvious to the overflow.

Above Cairo, leathern veſſels are ſometimes made uſe of to pour water into the canals, as are alſo chaplet-wheels, with a chain of pitchers, worked by oxen. Though theſe machines be not of maſterly contrivance, yet they are ſufficient to ſupply the quantities neceſſary to water the earth: let it be obſerved, that the dykes in general are in a very neglected ſtate.

The means practiſed for preſerving the water, are dykes and canals, cut or dug in the places where the bank of the river is low, and is from thence conveyed to the mountains, acroſs entire provinces; ſo that when the Nile riſes, its water enters into canals, by which it is conveyed to the inner parts of the country, proportionably as the river is high. When the Nile is at its higheſt pitch, and has diffuſed its waters abroad, great care is taken to delay them, that the land may have time to ſoak in a ſufficient quantity. And it is for this end, that the dykes, called Giſſer, are employed: they prevent the waters return, as long as deemed requiſite; then the Giſſer is cut to let the waters eſcape.

All the happineſs and health of a province, depends on a juſt direction of the canals: but as every one partially ſtrives to make the moſt he can of them, even to the Bey of Gize, who gets more than five hundred purſes by them, they are in many places fallen; wherefore the fertility of the country diminiſhes in proportion.

THE

THE PYRAMIDS OF EGYPT.

Before I leave Cairo and its environs, I think it incumbent on me to ſay ſomething of thoſe monuments, foremoſt objects of the curioſity of travellers in Egypt; I mean the Pyramids, formerly reckoned among the ſeven wonders of the world; and are to this day matter of admiration, from Cairo to Meduun.

Thoſe ſuperb monuments are to be met with but in Egypt; for the one at Rome, wherein C. Ceſtius is entombed, is but a meer imitation, and of dimenſions much inferiour to the ſmalleſt in Egypt, therefore deſerves not to be quoted as an exception to our general poſition above.

The pyramids are not built on the plains, but on the rocks, at the feet of the high mountains that accompany the Nile in its courſe, and divide Egypt from Lybia.

Some are opened, others ruined; the greateſt number ſhut: there is not one that hath not been damaged one way or other. It is obvious that they have not been all erected at the ſame time, which can be proved, from the prodigious quantity of materials neceſſary for their ſtructure. The perfection remarkable in the laſt fabricated is another proof; for great is their ſuperiority over the firſt, both as to ſize and magnificence. This may be poſitively aſſerted of them, that their ſtructure is of the moſt remote antiquity, and anteriour to the moſt ancient hiſtorians, whoſe writings have come down to us.

That the moſt ancient pyramids have been raiſed at the ſame time that the tower of Babel was, is a bold ſurmiſe; but the pyramids have to boaſt that they ſtill ſubſiſt, whereas ſcarce any remains of the ancient tower are to be found.

There

There are four of them that peculiary merit the attention of the curious; for although there be ſeven or eight in the neighbourhood, they are nothing in compariſon with the former, eſpecially ſince they have been opened, and almoſt entirely demoliſhed. The four principal ones are almoſt on a diagonal line, and diſtant one from the other, about four hundred paces; their four faces anſwer exactly to the four cardinal points, the north, the ſouth, the eaſt, and the weſt.

The two moſt northern are the moſt conſiderable, and are in perpendicular height five hundred feet: the two others are leſs, but contain ſome particularities, which are the motive of their being examined, and in conſequence admired.

The pyramids are founded upon rocks, at the foot of the mountains, which had not originally been all over even, but have ſince been made ſo by the help of the chiſel, as is yet diſcoverable in many parts of it: this artificial level has a ſlope on the north ſide and on the eaſt, by means of which, favourable aſſiſtances were raiſed for the commodious conveyance of materials neceſſary for the pyramids. This plain is about fourſcore perpendicular feet high above the horizon of the lands which are ſubject to the overflowing of the Nile: it is a Daniſh league in circumference.

Although this plain be on a continued rock, it is almoſt covered by a flying ſand, blown by the wind from off the high mountains in the neighbourhood: in this ſand, a number of ſhells, and petrified oyſters are found, which is the more ſurpriſing, becauſe the Nile never riſes ſo high as to overflow this plain, and if it ever had, it could not be concluded the cauſe of this extraordinary effect, becauſe that no ſuch ſubſtances are waſted by it in all its courſe. There is moreover another queſtion to be made; from whence are come thoſe ſhells of a like ſort to be found on

the

the very pyramids? Mr. Scheuezzer, in my c would be puzzled to conjecture them to be mains of the univerſal deluge: in which c would be obliged to prove, that the pyrami to reſiſt ſo tremendous a force, as that of luge; on reflection, it muſt appear to him t a miracle. In this place alſo are found ſ thoſe celebrated flint ſtones, which, for the fi ty of their colours, are in far greater eſtimati agate, and of which, at Cairo, tobacco-bo haſts for knives are made.

The moſt northern of thoſe great pyrar the only one that is open, and as it is the meet, I will, by it, begin my intended deſcr after which, I ſhall examine whatever is rem in the others.

The figure of pyramids is ſo generally that it would be ſuperfluous to give a deſcri them here. I ſhall only obſerve by the wa it is the moſt ſolid figure can be given to a building. There is no way to deſtroy it, un gun above; it is fixed on too firm a foundat attack it there; and whoever ſhould attempt, find as much difficulty to execute its overthr there had been to erect it. One muſt be ve to the northern pyramid, in order to deſcry tent of this enormous maſs. It is like all the whether great or ſmall, without any artificia dation. Nature has furniſhed one in the which is ſtrong enough to ſupport this which is really immenſe. The outſide of th mid is for the moſt of ſquare ſtones, hewn rock, ſituate along the banks of the Nile, w to this day, the grottos are ſeen, from whe ſtones have been taken: the ſize of the ſqu theſe ſtones is not equal; they all have a pr figure. The architect had them all cut in tha ner, that they might be placed one on the top

other, and as it were to be cemented together: one might incline to think that their ſeveral ranks ought to have formed as it were ſo many degrees; but it is quite otherwiſe, for the architect's attention was full of the pyramidal figure, and did not trouble itſelf about the regularity of degrees.

Theſe ſtones are not near ſo hard as might be imagined, from their having ſubſiſted ſo long; they owe their preſervation to the climate they are in, which is not ſubject to frequent rains. But notwithſtanding this advantage, they are obſerved to be worm-eaten, chiefly indeed on the north-ſide; wherefore they are far from being ſo hard as the ſtones of Breme, or Bentheim. The different exterior courſes of theſe ſtones are joined to each other by their own weight, without lime, lead, or the binding of any ſort of metal. But in regard to the body of the pyramid, which is full of irregular ſtones, they were obliged to uſe a mortar, which is apparent at the entrance of the ſecond channel of the firſt pyramid, which has been forcibly opened. I perceived not the leaſt mark to prove that it had been covered with marble; for although ſome travellers have conjectured ſo, from ſeeing the ſummit of the ſecond pyramid covered with granite; there is by ſo much the leſs reaſon to credit this ſurmiſe, that on the ſides there are not the leaſt remains of granite, or marble to be found, and it would have been impoſſible to have carried it ſo entirely away, as to leave not a fragment behind. It is true, that, about this pyramid and others, many ſcraps of granite, and white marble are to be ſeen, but they do not lead to a proof, that the pyramids were covered therewith: ſuch materials were uſed on the inſide of the pyramid, and of temples that ſtood without; it is therefore more natural to preſume, that thoſe pieces are the remains of thoſe ſtones when worked on to be employed, or of the ruins of the temples, rather than pieces of

marble

marble that had been torn off by force from the covering of the pyramids.

The one I now deſcribe, is three hours journey from old Cairo: the way to go to it is, to embark on the Nile, when its waters are low, near the iſle of Rhoda, in order to be carried to Gize, which is not diſtant above a muſket ſhot; the remaining part is by land: but when the waters of the Nile are out, and in their greateſt ſwell, they go in a bark from old Cairo, to the rock on which the pyramids are built.

Its entrance is on the north ſide; by its four angles we eaſily know, that its loweſt ſtones are the firſt angular and fundamental ones; but from thence upward to the middle, the wind has formed a glacis of ſand, which is ſo high on the north ſide, that it facilitates the way to the entrance of the pyramid.

The entrance of this, as well as of all the others, has been made under the baſis of the moulding of the pyramid, above forty-eight feet above the horizon, and inclining more to the eaſt than to the weſt: they have cut to the ſlope of the pyramid, in order to diſcover it: the architrave of the firſt channel, by which this opening commences, ſeems to promiſe a portal; but having cut on, without finding any thing behind it but ſtones, like thoſe employed in building the pyramid, the project of ſerching for any other opening, beſides that already diſcovered, was laid aſide.

This opening leads ſucceſſively to five different channels, or conduits; which, although they run above, below, and horizontally, tend all to the ſouth, terminate in two chambers, the one in the middle of the pyramid, the other beneath.

All, except the fourth, have pretty near the ſame dimenſions, to wit, three feet and a half ſquare. They are conſtructed alike, and covered on their four ſides with great pieces of white marble, ſo

ſmooth,

ſmooth, that there would be no going on them, without the artifice employed, and even as matters are now, that we find from each ſtep, little holes cut for the fiting of the feet, it is troubleſome enough to get on, and whoever makes a falſe ſtep, inevitably relapſes to the place he began from.

It is ſaid, that they all have been ſhut up, and filled with large ſquare ſtones, thrown into them after the work had been finiſhed. It is certainly true, that the end of the ſecond has been blocked up; for there are two ſquare pieces of marble, which debar all communication with the firſt. But to ſpeak the genuine truth, its entrance is not large enough to admit a man, and therefore leſs ſo to receive a great quantity of large ſtones, as muſt have been requiſite to fill up the other channels.

When the two firſt are paſſed, a reſting-place is met, which has on the right hand, an opening for a ſmall channel or well, wherein, except another little reſting-place, only bats are to be found; after having ſuffered a great deal from them, there is the farther great diſappointment of not ſeeing its iſſue, on account of the ſand it is choaked with.

From the firſt mentioned reſting-place, the third channel leads to a chamber not very large, half filled with ſtones taken from the wall on the right hand, to open there another channel, which terminates in a niche not far from it: it is vaulted ridge-wiſe, and is all over inlaid with granite, that had formerly its poliſh, but is now quite blackened, by the ſmoke of the flambeaux of its viſitors.

After having returned by the ſame road, the next taſk is to climb up to the fourth channel; along its ſides are raiſed-ways: it is very high, and vaulted in a ridge like a form.

The fifth conducts to the ſupior chamber: before one comes thither, in the middle of the canal, ſomewhat higher than it, but not larger, is a ſmall apartment.

Oppoſite to the ſecond pyramid, there are ſix which have been all opened. In one I remarked a ſquare well thirty feet deep.

About three hundred paces eaſtward of the ſecond pyramid is the remarkable head of the huge and celebrated ſphinx.

There are ſepulchral grottos in the neighbourhood of the pyramids: on ſome of them I have obſerved hieroglyphics, which prove their inſtitution to be much poſterior to the erecting of pyramids. They have all been opened, and robbed of what had been depoſited in them. I examined ſeveral, and found therein but the half of a ſmall idol of earthern ware, ſuch as are found now in great quantity around the pyramids in the neighbourhood of Saccara, in the quarter called, The Land of Mummies.

A journal of the author's travels from Cairo to Eſſuaen.

AT Cairo I was compelled to ſojourn for more than three months, from the 7th of July 1737, to the 15th of November of the ſame year: which forced delay proceeded from ſeveral cauſes. For, beſides the common obſtacles, and general prevention of the natives againſt Franks * deſiring to penetrate into upper Egypt, through which vulgar prejudice many curious, commiſſioned from different courts of Europe have been deterred, I was impeded by two ſupernumerary accidents, that affected me particularly.

One was cauſed by a revolt then raging, and by which all the country was thrown into confuſion. Though by order of the government throats were cut, and heads knocked off, of all the rebels taken, there remained, notwithſtanding, a great many who had joined the Arabians. The chief among them

* The common denomination of Europeans.

was named Salem Cachef. By a report of his death having been induſtriouſly ſpread abroad, in order to quiet the ſcared minds of the populace, he had eluded the ſtricteſt ſearch after him, and married the daughter of an Arabian Sheack. Strengthened by this alliance, he robbed and ſlaughtered all that came from Cairo: ſo that it was equally dangerous to undertake the journey with the caravans by land, or by water up the Nile.

The ſecond impediment was a ſickneſs I made ſlight of in the beginning, attributing it ſolely to the air of the country, which, though I looked on as not very favourable to my conſtitution, yet I hoped time would familiariſe them with each other, but it became a matter of ſerious concern; for, in a few days, unequivocal ſymptoms declared my diſeaſe to be a peripneumony, or inflammation of the lungs I was confined to my bed for two months.

After more than three months involuntary ſtay at Cairo, I had the pleaſure to ſee the end of all oppoſitions to my farther purſuits in Upper Egypt. The fever abated: I was cheered with the flattering increaſe of ſtrength every day, to enable me for the undertaking. The revolt which had lately cauſed ſuch great alarms was now ſo far reduced, that we could ſafely bargain for a bark, to carry us up the Nile. In order to facilitate the way and ſecure us from the natives prejudice againſt the Europeans, we had provided ourſelves with the ſtrongeſt recommendations from the chiefs of the government, as well as of the militia, directed to ſeveral Governors of provinces, and to ſeveral Arabian Sheacks.

We agreed with a barge-maſter to carry us to Eſſuaen for thirty ſeudouclis and a new coat, on condition that he ſhould not take in a perſon more than our company conſiſted of, which had been

lately augmented by a Coft-prieſt, and two Miſſionaries from Rome: one of whom was a valuable acquiſition, inaſmuch as he underſtood the Arabian very well, could, therefore, be very uſeful to us, if, by any accident, we ſhould loſe the Maronite and the Jew, whom we had employed for our interpreters.

All preparatives for our travelling being expedited, we embarked on the 17th of November, and on the 18th we arrived at Sakkara, which, beſides having a moſque, is celebrated for its commerce of mummies, which the inhabitants dig out of the place called the Plain of Mummies. There is alſo the labyrinth, wherein formerly birds, and other embalmed animals were buried.

On the 19th came to Gamaſe Ellogoira; that is, Gamaſis the Little, a town, or rather the aggregate of five villages. I landed there to take a view of their ploughs; from the inſpection of which I concluded what little credit is to be given to the relations of thoſe authors, who would fain perſuade us, that there is no neceſſity for tillage in Egypt, but that, after the inundation of the Nile has paſſed away, it ſuffi ed to throw ſeed on the ground.

Oppoſite to the firſt of thoſe iſlands are two mean villages, the one called Salchie, on our left; the other called Udwab, on our right. It was with great difficulty that we made our way thither.

Overagainſt the northern point of the iſle of Eutfeeg, whereon there is a village with a moſque, we perceived, on our right, half a league from the bank of the river, the village of Soft, ſituate north-eaſt of Meduun, a village a league diſtant from the weſtern bank of the Nile: between theſe two places, but nearer to the latter than to the former, ſtandeth the moſt ſouthern of the pyramids of Dagjour, and, as I ſurmiſe, of all Egypt.

On

On the 20th we embarked, and ſaw that day a great many water-camels. In the evening we were peſtered with bats, that hunt for their food on the ſurface of the Nile. During the night we kept a ſtrict watch, and every four hours fired a muſquet, which denoted that we were not to be ſurpriſed. And this we practiſed all the reſt of the journey.

The 21ſt, 22d, and 23d, were oft becalmed, and, on the 24th, got once more to Sauvied-Elmaſluub: we were viſited by Muſtapha, brother of Kiaja, or Colonel Oſman Bey. He made us a preſent of two ſheep, thirty fowls, an hundred eggs, and a hamper full of bread. In return, we complimented him with ſome wine of Candia, and other ſorts of liquors, ſome ſherbet, and other inconſiderable preſents. We had made acquaintance with him at Cairo. Having taken leave of him, we ſailed in the morning.

In the afternoon we ſtopt at Eſchmend Ell-Arrab, where every houſe has a pigeon-houſe at the top of it: for it is there a law that no man ſhall marry, or be at the head of a family, unleſs he be poſſeſſed of a pigeon-houſe-topped abode. The reaſon of the law is, their having no other ingredients to manure their lands with, beſides the dung of thoſe birds; for the excrements of all other animals is carefully preſerved to be burnt, and the ſoot that ariſes from them to make armoniac ſalt.

This ſort of Arabian houſes are ſo contrived, that as the pigeons tenant the upper part, ſo the proprietors and their families occupy the lower one. Their agreeable appearance vaniſhes on a nearer approach; go into them, they are the dwellings of poverty and wretchedneſs.

The inhabitants are ſupported by their commerce with Cairo, whither they ſend all their commodities. Their greateſt trade is for poultry and eggs, which they keep till ſome bark goes by, and then ſell them

in the bulk. And hence ariſes the great difficulty a ſtranger meets with to come at proviſions in thoſe places. To get but a dozen of eggs, he muſt go to four houſes; and ſo of the reſt.

On the 25th nothing material happened. On the 26th we arrived at Schechabade, formerly Antinoe, capital of the low Thebaid. It contains ſeveral antiquities, wherein none of the enormous ſtones, employed by the Egyptians in their buildings, are to be ſeen, but ſtones of a moderate ſize, and ſuch as were uſed in conſtructing triumphal arches at Rome. The principal objects among the ruins, are three grand gates; the firſt is ornamented with columns of the Corinthian order, channeled: the two others, which correſpond with the firſt, are plainer. Theſe ruins of ancient Antinoe, are at the feet of the mountains, and bordering on the Nile. The walls of the houſes have been built of bricks, which look as red to-day, as if they had been but newly made.

On the 27th we came to Galaniſch: there is no ſafety here for unarmed barques. The Arabians of theſe parts are profeſſed pirates, in deſpite of the government. We were informed that the Senſchiak having one day ſent thither his bark, to ſeize on the Chief of the pirates, the head of a Chriſtian ſlave was ſent to him, whoſe throat had been cut in a barque that accidentally lay near their land. They gave the Senſchiak to underſtand that it was the head of their Chief, who, rejoicing at the preſent, paid them liberally for it. Next day he diſcovered the cheat, and puniſhed the authors of it ſeverely.

All veſſels going up the Nile pay a cuſtom at Monſaluut; wherefore it will be prudent in all travellers, inſtigated by mere curioſity, never to ſuffer any merchandiſe on board the veſſel they have; for, if they do, they are expoſed to many affronts and inconveniencies, as we experienced here and in other places.

Oppoſite to this city, eaſtward of the Nile, is a Coft-convent, abſolutely inacceſſible. Thoſe determined to go to it, muſt ſubmit to be raiſed up in a baſket, by means of a pully; whence this convent has the name of the Pulley-convent.

Near thoſe mountains dwells a Bedouin, called Haſſer Abuaffi: he has the ſecret of ſupporting himſelf there, without being approved of by the government of Cairo. He ſows and plants, nay, exacts a tenth of their harveſt from his ſubjects. Every time the Senſchiak comes to Monfaluut, a rumour is immediately ſpread, that he is come with a full intent of making war againſt Haſſer Abuaffi, which report he ſoon puts an end to, by the interceſſion of the preſents he makes to the Senſchiak.

On the 28th we came to Siuut: this city has the appearance of another capital: it has a Caſchef, and ſome moſques, and is the reſidence of a Coft-biſhop. This is the place of rendezvous for all who have a mind to make part of the caravan that goes from Siuut to Sennar.

It is remarkable for its antique grottos, now called Sababinath, and made in the mountain named Tſchebat ell Kofferi. It is a matter of two hours aſcent, before, by the guidance of the mountain-path, the firſt door can be reached, through which one enters into a grand ſaloon, ſupported by four hexagonal pillars of the very rock. The ceiling is ornamented with pictures diſtinguiſhable even now, and the gold employed thereon ſhines on every ſide. The floor is covered with ſand and ſtones. Nothing more is to be remarked in this ſaloon, beſides a few openings here and there, which lead to other apartments; but, as they are filled up with ruins, and the paſſages to them are not eaſy, no body attempts them. There is over the ſaloon an apartment, which, from without, may be climbed to; but with great difficulty. It is not ſo large as the inferior, has no pillars, and is

painted like the other. On each ſide of this ſecond, or upper ſaloon, is a tomb of the ſame ſtone as the mountain is, of which they are part. One of the tombs is open, the other ſhut, but almoſt buried in the ſand. The upper ſaloon communicates with other apartments, but the communication is obſtructed from the ſame cauſes as in thoſe below.

On the 29th we ſaw ſome Arabians reaping in a neighbouring plain. They cut at a time but juſt as much corn as their cattle can conſume the ſtraw of in one day. And as ſoon as that quantity of corn is cut, they ſet about preparing the land to be ſowed anew.

By the 3d of December we got to Meſchie. Our Reis went thither at the break of day to have bread baked for himſelf and his crew. We were alſo careful to take in ſome, becauſe our proviſion of biſcuit diminiſhed. Bread is not to be had here ready-made: this is the method followed by thoſe who want ſome: they go to the market and buy corn; it is from thence carried to the horſe-mill to be ground: but if this mill cannot diſpatch it ſoon enough, being already engaged to other cuſtomers, then they parcel it out to ſeveral by buſhels, who grind it with querns, or hand-mills, there being ſcarce a houſe without one. After they have got their flour, they give it to women, whoſe buſineſs it is to work and make bread of it, which is ſpeedily executed by them, although their baking-utenſils are not the moſt commodious, nor in the beſt order. Their ovens are remarkably little, made of mortar, and heated with ſtraw. Notwithſtanding, their bread (though ſomewhat Arabian) is pretty well made. Their manner is not very nice. Their dough is very ſoft, nor is there ever any complaint of their bread being overbaked. Their cakes are generally good, when eaten new; but when not of the baking of the day, a ſtrong appetite is neceſſary to reliſh them.

I went

I went to the bazar, or market-place, and bought a ſucking-calf of a buffle for forty parats; poultry two parats apiece; and other articles in proportion.

As I walked along the bazar, I met two of their pretended Saints, attendant on the market: they were ſtark naked, and ran like fools through the ſtreets, ſhaking their heads, and roaring as loud as they could.

The next curious figure was a harlot: her face and breaſts were expoſed; the ſmock ſhe had on was white, whereas that of other women is blue. Her head, her neck, her arms, and her legs, were decked with variety of trinkets. But all thoſe ornaments did not characteriſe her ſo much as her impudent air, and laſcivious geſtures; whence it appears that this ſort of creature has a general mark by which it is known in all countries. This, moreover, had an extraordinary mark for one of her profeſſion, which was, extreme uglineſs.

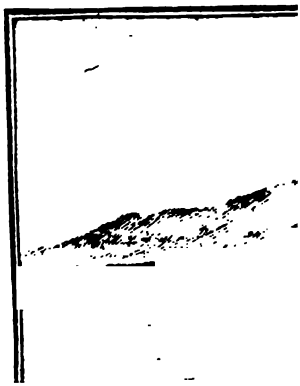
In the evening we arrived at Girge, where reſides the Bey or Governor of Upper Egypt, of which this is the capital. The Turks have ſeveral moſques there. It is alſo the reſidence of a Coft-Biſhop. The fathers of the Propaganda have a receptacle of hoſpitality, and ſupport themſelves therein by practiſing phyſic, which renders them neceſſary to the Turks. Notwithſtanding their ſervices, they are liable to continual inſults, and ſometimes to rigorous perſecutions.

Though Girge be ſtiled the capital of the Turks in Upper Egypt, it is alſo, in a manner, the limit of their dominions there; for higher up the inefficacy of their power is obvious. The Arabians do not heſitate to protect thoſe who have offended the Turkiſh government.

We ſailed from Girge the 4th in the evening, but were becalmed in the night. Several days paſſed without meeting any thing worth relation; but on

Dec. 9, we were harraſſed by a mob of Chriſti Cofts, who had drawn along with them a cro of Arabians. They ranged themſelves overagai our bark, and at firſt ſeemed to contemplate us wi great ſurprize; but on perceiving that no effort w made to diſperſe them, they became more inſole and ſo far, as to dare to come on board, where th rummaged every thing. Our bark had the appea ance of a market-place, ſome coming, others going We could not imagine what had cauſed this gener curioſity, having met nothing like it in any other pa of our journey. But as ſoon as our Reis returne on board, he explained the myſtery to us, declarin that thoſe troubleſome viſitants, on ſeeing our cof fers and kitchen-utenſils, had concluded the former to be filled with gold and ſilver, and that all the tin pewter, and braſs veſſels were made of either o thoſe two metals; that a general rumour being ſpread among them of our having immenſe riches, there was no ſafety to venture farther up the Nile: he then propoſed our returning to Cairo, aſſerting, at the ſame time, "They will kill you and me, in or- "der to make themſelves maſters of thoſe treaſures "they imagine you have. They will cauſe it to be "reported over all the country; ſo that if you "eſcape in one place, you will certainly periſh in "another. The Arabians are wicked enough to "execute ſuch dark deſigns." Our poor Reis, not able to recover from the panic he was ſtruck with, earneſtly ſolicited, and for a long time, that we ſhould return to Cairo: but we were deaf to all his remonſtrances. By way of encouragement, we told him, that we feared nothing, being well armed; that no perſon ſhould offer the leaſt injury to him or them, but at the immediate peril of his life; and that we were abſolutely determined to go up as far as the cataract. Our intrepidity, and repeated aſ-ſurances of defending his life, as well as our own,

recovered



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recovered him a little, and his anſwer of conſent was, "Inſchalla, God grant it."

To confeſs the truth, the Coſt-gentry did us a great diſſervice; for ever after we could not land any where, without being beſieged by crowds. The reports hatched againſt us at Nagadi, foreran us every where; ſo that we ſhould have been expoſed to many accidents, but that we were continually on our guard. The worſt of all was, our Reis's having become ſo extremely timid, as to tremble at the bare mention of putting to land; nor could it be done without compulſion in thoſe places, where there was any thing worth ſeeing. Many were the difficulties we had to overcome.

Dec. 10th, three or four crocodiles appeared on the banks. We fired at them: two inſtantly plunged into the water; one ſeemed to remain without any motion. We imagined that we had killed, or at leaſt wounded him ſeverely; wherefore we ordered our bark to bear on him, and were armed with poles, and other inſtruments, with which we intended to diſpatch him, in caſe he had not been already dead; but when we were within fifteen paces of him, awakened by our noiſe, he ſtarted away, and dived like the others. He was about thirty feet long. We ſaw that day twenty other crocodiles, ſtretched on ſand-banks, and of different extent, from fifteen to fifty feet.

The lands hereabout appeared to be pretty well cultivated; we remarked, among other articles of its produce, Turkiſh corn, ſugar-canes, lupines, &c.

Dec. 11th, as we ſailed I perceived on the eaſt ſide, an obeliſk: a little after I diſcovered a great number of periſtils, ſome portals, and antique ſtructures, confuſedly ſcattered up and down the plain.

From theſe ſigns, I immediately concluded that I ſaw the ruins of ancient Thebes; but I could not prevail on our Reis to put me aſhore, by fair words,

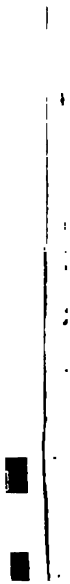
promiſes, or menaces. He did not here plead his fear of the Arabians; his only excuſe was, the impoſſibility of landing, on account of the iſlands and ſand-banks that obſtructed.

Dec. 12, on the eve, towards night, we had our bark made faſt on the weſt ſhore of the Nile, overagainſt Carnac, which is pretty near one hundred and thirty-five common leagues of France above Cairo. I roſe with the day, in order to ſee if there were not on that ſide ſome remains of ancient Thebes. I did not go far before I met two great coloſſuſes, which at firſt I took to be thoſe Strabo makes mention of; but I had good reaſon afterwards to think otherwiſe.

Encouraged by this firſt diſcovery, I returned for my arms, and the company of thoſe whom curioſity might incite to be of the party. The Reis perceiving our deſign, ſpared no pains to thwart it, nay employed all his eloquence to intimidate us. But when he found his repreſentations had no weight with us, he had recourſe to another ſtratagem, which he thought would prove more effectual to deter us, which was to ſwear, that if we went aſhore, he would go homward with his bark, and not wait for our return. But he was made to underſtand our fixed determination, and that if he dared to ſail off, as he threatened, we ſhould certainly overtake him, and make him pay dearly for his inſolence. This threat had the deſired effect on him; for he changed his note, humbly conjuring us not to land, for the ſake of him: "for," ſaid he, "if "your good fortune make you eſcape from danger, "you expoſe me to the greateſt perils hereafter; for "whenever I ſhall have occaſion to ſail up this way, "and go aſhore, the inhabitants will fall upon me "unmercifully, for having brought ſtrangers into "their country, to carry away immenſe treaſures "from

ſoles of their feet
teen feet in length, which
lation; for, by analogy with the
of man, the height of each figure,
deſtal, muſt be fifty feet.

They are ſeated on ſtones almoſt
feet high, and as many large,



m them: there will be no perſuading them to
contrary."

was too much uſed to ſuch arguments to heed
The janiſſary heretofore mentioned, who
reſolute attempts, and, from his ſtation, think-
imſelf more privileged than others, threatened
eis, and accompanied me aſhore; ſome of our
e followed us: we traverſed the country, taking
wo mentioned coloſſuſes for our guides.

e had not above a league of road to make, if
ould have gone in a ſtrait line; but the country
ſo interrupted with canals, and covered with
kiſh corn, that we were obliged to make ſeveral
ds: we ſpent three hours before we reached the
ſuſes. The place whereon they are erected, as
dy obſerved, is above a league from the Nile,
ſandy plain that riſes towards the feet of the
ntains.

bout two hundred paces from the coloſſuſes, on
aſt and on the north ſide, are the ruins of ſe-
ſtatues broken down: on the ſouth, at the di-
e of half an hour's walking, are other ruins,
ancient and modern.

he coloſſal figures look towards the Nile. One
ſents a man, the other a woman: their dimen-
are ſimilar, and their ſize prodigious. They
bout fifty Daniſh feet high from the baſis of
pedeſtals to the ſummit of their heads. It was
ieir ſhadow I determined this meaſure; for on
pplying my pole to it, I found that from the
of their feet to their knees, were included fif-
feet in length, which makes good my calcu-
; for, by analogy with the common proportion
an, the height of each figure, including its pe-
l, muſt be fifty feet.

hey are ſeated on ſtones almoſt cubic, fifteen
high, and as many large, comprehending the
Iſiac

Iſiac figures that ſerve for ornaments on t
each ſtone.

The back part of each ſtone is a foot
higher than the fore part.

The pedeſtals are each five feet high,
and a half long, nineteen and a half wid

The diſtance from one ſtatue to th
twenty-one paces.

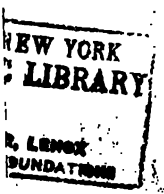
They both conſiſt of ſeveral blocks of
greyiſh gravel ſtone, and ſeem to have be
from the caverns which abound in the ne
mountains.

Their breaſts and legs are covered
Greek and Latin inſcriptions, that have b
thereon in the time of the Romans.

The back part and ſides of the chair
they are ſeated, are covered with hieroglyp
which in general are very like each oth
there be ſome difference in the particular
characters. Moreover, there is on each ſi
The chairs ſeem to be made of one pie
the ſame kind of ſtone with the reſt. T
appear to be ſomewhat browner and hard

The two Iſiac figures, which (as already ol
the advanced ſide-ornaments, ſeem to be
of a finer grain than the reſt; which give
ſurmiſe, that though they are adjuſted in
Egyptian taſte, they have nevertheleſs
there ſince the erecting of the ſtatues.

I have obſerved that the pedeſtals are a
as brown as the chairs. Their inſcript
of one line of hieroglyphical figures, an
greatly injured by time and violent force.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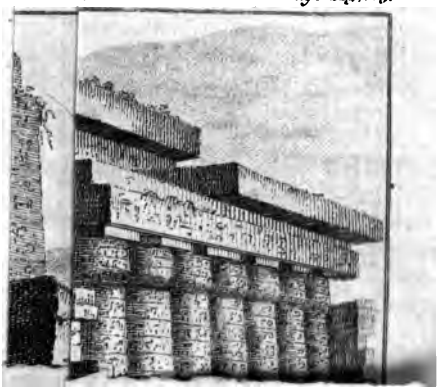

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Although the hieroglyphics are different in ſome places, yet the arrangement of them is ſimilar in the general diſpoſition: they are executed with elegance, ſymmetry, and well preſerved. The two figures at the bottom are above the natural ſize: they ſeem to form a knot, and to hold faſt the precepts preſcribed by the hieroglyphics. They are wrought in baſſo relievo, do not ſeem to be an Egyptian work, and are entirely different from the reſt.

The inſcriptions have been engraved to teſtify that the voice of Memnon had been heard.

We went afterwards to the ruins on the north ſide, not far from the coloſſal figures. There is no room to doubt but that they are the remains of the palace of Memnon.

The portico of the temple alone is enough to give us a grand idea of Egyptian architecture: each column has over its capital ſmall ſquare ſtones, which ſerve as beams, on which larger blocks of ſtone reſt: all that is viſible of them is covered with hieroglyphics, which have an additional luſtre from the moſt lively colours incruſted thereon: ſome of the blocks are forty feet long, and two thick in every inſe. Above thoſe ſtones are other large ones in a tranſverſe poſition, and joined to each other like planks; all that can be ſeen of theſe ſtones in the platform is covered with hieroglyphics.

Two ſorts of columns are to be obſerved in this edifice: their thickneſs and ſolidity gives them a fine appearance to the diſtant beholder, whoſe eye, drawing nearer, is pleaſed with a view of the hieroglyphics, and, when cloſe by, delighted with the beauty of the colours.

This kind of painting has neither ſhade nor gradation: the objects are incruſted as the figures are on the dial-plates of watches, with this difference, that there is no detaching of them. I muſt confeſs that this incruſted matter ſurpaſſed, for ſtrength,

any

any thing I had ever ſeen of the kind. It is far above the Al-freſco and the Moſaic, and laſts longer. It is ſomewhat ſurpriſing how the gold, the ultramarine, and ſeveral other colours, have preſerved their luſtre to this day.

I obſerved that the hieroglyphics in thoſe buildings had not the ſame appearance of more ancient pieces, nor is there that exactneſs of proportion the Greeks and Romans were wont to give their figures.

On the inſide, upon the weſtern hall, leaning towards the north, are three large figures with the faults I mentioned. I believe they were deſigned as an alluſion to the fall of Adam and Eve. There is the repreſentation of a green tree, and on the right ſide of it a man ſitting, who ſeems, with an inſtrument he has in his right hand, to defend himſelf againſt a little oval figure, covered with hieroglyphical characters, which is offered to him by a woman, ſtanding on the left ſide of the tree, whilſt, with the other, he accepts the preſent. Behind the man ſtands a figure, the head covered with a mitre, and ſtretching out a hand to him. I could find no connection in the reſt, moſt of the figures reſembling rather amorous devices, or the repreſentations of ſome heroic atchievements.

About fifty paces from this edifice are other remains of antiquity, that ſeem to have been a gallery all round the court; and are the more worthy of being noticed, as they ſeem to be thoſe Philoſtrates has ſpoken of, where he treats of the temple of Memnon, in the life of Apollonius.

I ſaw four pilaſters made of ſeveral pieces of the ſtone abovementioned. Each pilaſter is ornamented with a Term, the arms folded, and in the right hand a ſort of hook: though their heads are knocked off, there remains, on their ſhoulder,

a part

a part of the common head-dreſs of Egyptian figures.

Three great blocks of ſtone cover theſe four pilaſters, which are alſo covered with hieroglyphics.

There ſtand over againſt them four pilaſters, ſimilar to thoſe I have deſcribed.

Behind the gallery is a wall in a very ruinous way: it is viſible that the upper part of the wall was joined to the colonnade with large ſtones, by which means was contrived a walk, ſheltered from the ſun.

There are, alſo, two pilaſters too far ſeparated from each other to have been covered; whence it follows, that if this was the place whereon Memnon's ſtatue had been erected, it muſt have ſtood uncovered, and in open air; which appears the more probable, as it could by that ſituation better receive the rays of the ſun.

There is another Coloſſus entire, and made of one piece of granite marble, of a middling height; now thrown down, lies on its face, and is half buried in the earth: all that can be ſeen of it ſeems to be no way damaged. Its attitude is the ſame with that of thoſe already mentioned.

I ſaw the head of a Coloſſus, dreſſed in the Egyptian manner, two feet high, made of black granite, in the true ancient taſte, executed with great art and elegance, and is notwithſtanding ſo ſingly ſimple, as to make us conclude, that the whole muſt have been the work of ſome great maſter. There are no other remains to be found of it at preſent; they are, perhaps, with many more, buried under the ſand.

I thought it not amiſs to add to this deſcription a particular plan of the remarkable ruins of the palace of Memnon, in ancient Thebes.

When

When I had ſeen all that ſeemed worthy of my attention, I, with my company, took the road that leads to the mountains, went into ſeveral of the caverns, and afterwards came to Medinet Habu, a ruined city now, and had been built weſtward of the Nile, three quarters of a league inland, and on a part of the ruins of Thebes. We there ſaw an ancient and magnificent portal: the Arabians make it ſerve for a gate to the city: it faces the Nile, is well preſerved, and of uncommon beauty.

We got over ſome little hills, made of the ruins and the ſand, and came to a ſquare that ſeemed as a kind of ante-chamber, relatively to the portal, and built with large blocks of white ſtone, each as high as a man. Some remains, riſing above the ground, are yet viſible: the ſuperior part is a plain cornice. Overagainſt the portal is a pretty large opening, and on each ſide of it a fragment of a wall covered with hieroglyphics. This ſquare does not terminate at the portal, but at the walls of the ancient city, ſome remains whereof are ſtill to be ſeen northward of the portal. The face of the ſquare has no cornice; and the piece of a wall near its aperture, is alſo covered with hieroglyphics.

About a dozen paces farther on are two columns, made of ſeveral large ſtones, without hieroglyphics; but their channelled capitals are incruſted with colours very pleaſing to the eye, though not executed according to the rules of any order of architecture.

Having paſſed the columns, we were obliged to clamber over ſeveral large blocks of ſtone that obſtruct the paſſage to the portal: they abound in hieroglyphics. Among other things, I obſerved four frizes of a greyiſh ſtone, with vinettes in baſſo relievo. They were on the ground among other ruins. I was the more ſmitten with them, for that they appeared to me to be a Roman work, ornamented on the

the middle with the heads of a Diana and a Bacchus; the reſt covered over with vine and oak leaves. I ſaw nothing like them far or near in the ruins, or any edifice where thoſe frizes could have ſerved. Every thing elſe was Egyptian or Arabian architecture; the chief material of the latter is mud, &c.

The architrave of the portal has two frizes, one on the top of the other: it is poliſhed, and forms a pretty large opening: the frontiſpiece hath greatly ſuffered; I, notwithſtanding, diſcovered the wings of the dragon, ſuch as are ſeen on many other edifices. I alſo obſerved the remains of that ſort of cartouch, which was a favourite ornament among the Egyptians. All this was in baſſo relievo, and incruſted with colours.

Above this opening is a ſmall cordon, and round the portal a large border full of hieroglyphics: interiorly it is covered with large blocks of ſtone, forming a ſmooth platform, ornamented likewiſe with hieroglyphics.

I muſt not forget to mention the large ſtone over the architrave. We do not know its uſe. It is covered with very beautiful hieroglyphics.

This portal gone through, another is met, built in the ſame manner; that leads to a third; and this perhaps to a fourth, which is not very eaſy to aſcertain, it being a difficult matter to get through the ſecond: the third is filled up with, and almoſt buried in rubbiſh, at which curioſity muſt ſtop.

We returned from thence to ſurvey the buildings on the right hand of the portal. No appearance can be more magnificent: they are unluckily inacceſſible, on account of the rubbiſh and ruins that choak the avenues to them.

Dec. 13th, we came to Demegraed, which is on the ground where ancient Crocodilopolis was. We anchored

anchored near it, and our folks who went aſhore there killed ſeveral geeſe of the Nile.

The lands about Demegraed ſeemed to have been neglected; they had not been cultivated ſince the laſt inundation of the Nile.

From the 13th to the 19th of December, we ſailed, or rowed, on, without interruption, and came on the 19th to the city of Eſſuaen, ſituate on the eaſt ſide of the Nile, as inconſiderable as moſt of the villages of Upper Egypt. It contains ſome moſques, has a citadel, wherein an Aga reſides: he there at our arrival, was called Ibrahim. It is diſtinguiſhed from other places in the ſame government, by the inhabitants not having any pigeon-houſes on the top of their abodes, which gives ſo goodly an appearance to other villages.

What makes this place moſt remarkable is, the firſt cataract's beginning, or, if you pleaſe, ending near it, according as travellers go up, or come down, which is notified by rocks of granite in the middle of the Nile.

Our Reis, being a janiſſary, went to declare our arrival to the Aga; and that Oſman Aga, Chief of the janiſſaries at Grand Cairo, had given us letters, which would be preſented to him.

At eight o'clock in the morning, two janiſſaries came on his part to invite us to the citadel.

He treated us civilly, and a mutual interchange of preſents followed.

Having ſpoke of camels, horſes, and aſſes, which the Aga was to furniſh for money to carry us and our luggage to the firſt cataract, we aſked him to be ſo kind as to let ſome one of his people accompany us, and that we ſhould not only defray his expence, but alſo reward his trouble. He ſent his brother to us, as the propereſt perſon, and we ſoon agreed about the price.

The

The Aga ſent to inform us, that the letters he had promiſed would have been already written, but that he was unfortunately out of paper: we ſent him ſome.

Friday, Dec. 20th, at eight o'clock in the morning, one of the fathers, who ſpoke the Arabic, joined us at the Aga's, to haſten our departure. The Aga had bargained with a Reis to carry us from the firſt to the ſecond cataract, for four and twenty ſevillans, beſides ſome trifling preſents. The Reis begged ſome time to bake bread for him and his ſailors, which being got ready we ſet ſail.

The courſe by water to the firſt cataract is full of little iſlands, and rocks of granite, with which each ſide of the Nile here is covered. I obſerved alſo a moſque half ruined; an old citadel, behind which is a little bay, which, on its ſouth ſide, is defended by a natural dyke, conſiſting of large granite ſtones, whereon are various hieroglyphics.

The moſt remarkable part is an angular ſtone, which, beſides hieroglyphics, has towards its bottom a ſquare nich, with a kind of column in the middle. The degrees that are cut in the ſtones of this nich made me conjecture, that formerly it ſerved as a mokkias, to mark the riſe or fall of the waters.

Dec. 21ſt, the Aga's ſon, who was Commandant and Cuſtom officer of the port of the cataract, with his companion, paid us a viſit; ſaid they would accompany us to the cataract; and that, purſuant to the Aga's order, all conveniencies for carrying us ſhould be ready next day. In return we thanked them, with coffee, and ſome trifling preſents.

Dec. 22d. at ten o'clock in the morning, the Aga ſent a guard of janiſſaries to our bark, to prevent any injury being done to us at the unlading of our baggage. He ſoon after ſent us thirteen camels, three horſes, and as many aſſes as were thought neceſſary to carry every thing.

The

The concourſe of people was ſo great, in ſpite of the Aga's precautions, that we were above two hours unpacking, and packing anew, before we could ſet out. Though the Aga's ſon, with his Caſſetan, ſeconded by his companion, both on horſeback, conducted us, and prevented any diſorder, that did not hinder the populace, who had gathered before our bark, to follow us half the way.

Our road was on the eaſt ſide of the Nile. After we had croſſed a large plain, ſkirted all along with rocks, we came to a defile, through which one camel could hardly paſs. The next thing we ſaw was a Turkiſh fort. We crept along a narrow road, that is continued on the ſide of the cataract. After about two hours and a half's travelling, we reached the harbour of Morrada, or the firſt cataract.

There we met the bark the Aga had engaged for us: ſhe was ſmaller than the former we had hired at Cairo; but when we had fixed our tent in it, it ſeemed convenient enough.

We gave the Aga's ſon, and his companion, ſeven ſevillans for the cuſtom-duty, and their trouble in accompanying us thither. They ſeemed by their looks to deſire more: there is no ſatisfying the people of this country: we affected not to mind their diſſatisfaction. The expence of carriage came to ten parats a camel, and three parats an aſs. What they call camels here are dromedaries, that do not carry a great weight; and not above a ſack-load is carried by each aſs, they are ſo little and weak.

Dec. 23d, the Aga's ſon came early in the morning to take his leave of us. We diſcharged a janiſſary we had hired ſince our arrival at Eſſuaen: he ſeemed to be very well ſatisfied with one ſevillan. The Reis who had brought us from Cairo came alſo to take his leave of us: we preſented him with a green coat, and ſome articles for his wife and chil-

dren

dren: the thirty feudouclis for our paſſage, had been paid to him before we left Cairo.

When we thought to ſail, we were told, it would be impracticable for three or four days, on account of the Rammadam that was begun; for by the prophet's law, it is forbid to begin a journey in the firſt days of this feſtival; and that was the reaſon why our Reis was not come on board.

According to our bargain with him, he was to carry but our company and baggage: but the precaution here was as fruitleſs as a former one had been at Cairo; for, notwithſtanding, we ſaw them embark ſalt and corn, that had been brought to the harbour on ſeveral camels. I complained to the pilot. His anſwer was, that the bark drawing but two feet water, whereas ſhe ought to draw three when properly ballaſted, it was neceſſary to take thoſe commodities on board; for that reaſon we conſented. Our veſſel's upper part having been a long time expoſed to the heat of the ſun, and open in moſt of her jointures, took in a great deal of water.

Dec. 24th, finding it impoſſible to procure any carriages, I reſolved to foot it, and had a moſt agreeable journey, contemplating at leiſure the cataract, and the rocks of granite that form it.

After I had got on the ſandy flat, I often ſtopt to view the hieroglyphics cut in the very rocks, and large blocks of granite marble, that the ancients had begun to work upon, of which a great part remains unfiniſhed.

As I advanced on this ſandy plain, I met a large burying-place, full of ſtones with inſcriptions on each. I took it at firſt for a Turkiſh cemetery; but, upon a cloſer examination, found I miſtook: the tombs, being almoſt alike, had nothing relative to thoſe I had ſeen elſewhere; and not being able to form any judgment of the perſons that could be interred

terred there, I ſpoke to my Jewiſh valet, who could read the Turkiſh and Arabic languages, to try if he could decypher any of the inſcriptions. His anſwer was, that there was not a letter reſembling either the Turkiſh or the Arabic, and that he could make nothing of them. I deſired him to learn what was the tradition of the country about them; according to which he told me, they are the tombs of the Mammelus, that had been deſtroyed when the Calif came into Egypt.

Dec. 25th, having firſt paid a proper reſpect to Chriſtmas day, I employed the remains of it in viſiting the cataract; and in order not to alarm the country too much, I ſtole out with one of our company, who underſtood no more of the Arabic than I did.

I went to the place where I had obſerved, the day before, was the greateſt fall of water. I was obliged to take round-about ways on the rocks that project fartheſt into the river, and with difficulty eſcaped being wet. I continued making obſervations above an hour, without ſeeing any mortal; but having climbed on a rock, I eſpied a man fiſhing: I looked on him with pleaſure: he perceived it, and brought me to a place where he ſhewed me, with a little hook, to catch excellent carps. I gave him ſome paras; and this ſmall preſent, which was a kind of fortune to him, ſo far won me his affection, that he quitted his fiſhing to ſhew me all the acceſſible places. I ſpent four hours with him, and had ſufficient time to obſerve the ſituation of this cataract, which, at the time I was there, had about four feet in its fall, and thirty in length.

From the top of one of the rocks I beheld the beautiful antique ruins of Gr'ſirt Ell Heul. The fiſherman conducted me to his cottage, in order to regale me with ſome dates, and a little milk. He ſhewed me his furniture, of which an inventory could

could ſoon be made. One article he abounded in, viz. naked children that ran about us. I made them happy with ſome trifles I gave them.

He opened for me, as a farther proof of gratitude, one of his large jars, with a view of ſhewing me how corn is preſerved in that country. He carried the carps to our bark, and returned next day with a preſent of milk. He acted ſo gratefully for my little beneficence, that I remember him with pleaſure. He was the firſt and laſt that did us any ſervice, without aſking the backſich beforehand.

Next morning, we ſailed with a ſtrong northerly wind: we cleared the harbour of the firſt cataract. The firſt object after that ſtruck our view, was Gieſiret Ell Heiſt.

This iſland is the Philo of the ancients, on the eaſt ſide of the Nile, and ſome diſtance from it: near this is another iſland much larger, but deſart, and all covered with granite rocks: its banks are ſhaped like a wall cut in a rock: it contains many colonnades, edifices, and other moſt magnificent antiquities.

If the wall had not been down in ſome places, we ſhould not ſo readily diſcover the columns within, that ſeem to be numerous, and of maſterly workmanſhip.

On a granite rock there, ſeveral hieroglyphics are cut, not unlike in manner to thoſe at Eſſuaen.

Its temple appears to be of uncommon beauty, is well preſerved: its ornaments, as well as the capitals, are of the utmoſt delicacy.

I could ſee no more going up, but returning was more lucky. I ſilenced the oppoſition of our Reis, by bribing his pilot with a ſevillan, and one of our company got over his crew with another.

The Reis landed with the Aga's brother, and the janiſſary; they went by land to Eſſuaen. Whilſt our barbarians, animated by the preſent that had

been

been given to them, rowed us moſt manfully, and ſoon made faſt our bark at the iſland *Ell Heiſt*.

It being late, we were obliged to defer our curioſity until next morning: the fineneſs of the night ſpurred my impatience. I aſked if the iſland was inhabited: was anſwered, no. That ſufficed to determine me to land. I took a lanthorn with me, and was followed but by one perſon of our company.

Our firſt care was to make the tour of the iſland, in order to form a general idea of the ſituation of the edifices.

We were not a little ſurprized on perceiving a great number of barbarians cottages amongſt thoſe antiquities. We began ſtrongly to ſuſpect, that our pilot wanted to play us foul. We ſtill cautiouſly advanced, and, not hearing any dog bark, by degrees diſmiſſed our apprehenſions; and were in the utmoſt ſecurity, when we found the cottages waſte and abandoned.

We went to the great temple of Iſis, a moſt ſuperb monument, which is now almoſt entirely ſtanding.

We from thence went to another temple, which, though a great deal leſs, is remarkable for its extraordinary beauty and taſte. I believe this to have been the temple of the Hawk: Strabo mentioned one with that name. There are other temples, but I had not leiſure to minutely examine them.

With the break of the day I ſaw ſtairs, which made me conclude that there had been a ſubterraneous way throughout the iſland. I attempted to go down in ſeveral places; but found it impracticable, the paſſages being choaked with ruins and filth.

When the barbarians of the neighbourhood were riſen, and perceived our bark, about an hundred of them threatened to burn her, and deſtroy us, if we did not immediately ſheer off; which was done, to my great regret: what pity that ſuch fine monuments

ments ſhould be in the poſſeſſion of ſuch ſavage brutes!

But now, to return to the firſt courſe upwards from the cataract.—When following it, we had paſſed the iſle of Ell Heiſt, we continued ſail all that day, and firſt paſſed, on our right hand, the village of Hindau.

As we rowed up the ſtream, for the ſpace of a quarter of a league all around, we ſaw walls and foundations of many pompous buildings, entirely ruined, and almoſt covered with ſand.

At ſome diſtance from thence I ſaw five or ſix cottages built of ſtones, entirely covered with hieroglyphics. I ſought if I could diſcover in the neighbourhood, the remains of any large edifice from whence they might have been taken: I ſaw nothing but a heap of ſtones, all being in ruin; the ſtones of the ruins were alſo covered with hieroglyphics, of good workmanſhip, but had never been painted. A Barbarin obſerving my attention in obſerving theſe ſtones, made me a ſign to follow him, and that he would ſhew me ſomething curious: I followed him, and he brought me to a large flint-ſtone, which, in its fall from the neighbouring rocks, was ſplit in two: it was of a brown colour, and the wonderful part of it in the Barbarian's eye, its middle, having the form of a nut, was red.

Dec. 30th, between Scherck Girge and Garbe Girche, is the moſt perilous part of the Nile. The bed of the river, from ſide to ſide, abounds in rocks under the water, which is very deep beſide them. In the intervening ſpace are whirling gulfs: we omitted no precaution requiſite to ſteer ſafely through: unluckily our bark did not obey her rudder: we ſtruck upon a rock, and there ſtuck in a moſt terrifying ſituation: the bark was hitched by the middle, and the whirling of the water twiſted her about on the rock, as on a pivot. There was too great a

depth of water for our ſailors to go into it: we could not reach the bottom with long poles. The Reis wanted to perſuade them to ſtrip, and, ſwimming, to tow the bark after them: but they remonſtrated that it would be impoſſible for them to ſwim, on account of the whirlpools: but happily the wind and current jointly ſhoved her off, and the wind continuing ſtrong enough, we ſoon got clear of apparent danger by water, to meet almoſt as certain from ſhore on each ſide, where in two villages live profeſſed aſſailants of all barks that paſs. The one, on the eaſt ſide, is named Geſch Stobne; the other, overagainſt it, Sabagura: the wind ſtill continuing favourable, we ſoon got clear of them.

Dec. 31ſt and Jan. 1ſt, we went on comfortably, but in the evening the Reis declared he would ſtop at Derri, and not carry us up to the ſecond cataract, unleſs we advanced him fifty ſevillans more. Obſerving we paid little attention to his declaration, he inſiſted that he had bargained to go no higher. He laughed at our threats to force him, and ſaid we ſhould alter our tone when there.

We told the Reis that if any ſtratagem ſhould be contrived againſt us there, he ſhould ſuffer for it; and that if our company were all to periſh by vile ſchemes, he ſhould certainly be the firſt victim.

This menace made him change his note. He ſwore he would have no hand in any diſaſter that ſhould befall us; and that if Baram Cachef, to whom the bark belonged, permitted, he would go with us as far as ſhe could ſail; but added, at the ſame time, his apprehenſions that he would not conſent. He told us to take great care not to offend the tyrant, of whom, though his maſter, he gave us a frightful picture, of which we deferred our belief till experience ſhould give proofs for the truth of it.

Next day we landed at a village on our right, called Kudjuhed. The ſituation of the Nile and its

banks

banks continue ſtill the ſame: we here obſerved that the ſlope of the latter is for the moſt part covered with lupins and radiſhes, and likewiſe with ſome other plants, as ſuccory and pimpernel.

It is as difficult to get canoes hereabouts, as at the firſt cataract. We obſerved that day a comical manner of the natives croſſing the Nile. Two men ſat on a pack of ſtraw, preceded by a cow that ſwam before them. One of them held the tail of the cow with one hand, and with the other he managed a rope faſtened to her horns. The man behind ſteered with a little oar, by means of which he preſerved the equilibrium.

We ſaw likewiſe that day laden camels croſs the river in the following manner. A man ſwims before, having the bridle of the firſt camel in his mouth, to whoſe tail the ſecond is tied, the third to his; a man ſeated on a pack of ſtraw forms the rear-guard, whoſe care is, that the ſecond and third camel follow in a line.

On the 3d we proceeded happily; but on the 4th, before we unmoored in the morning, we had a ſerious ſcene with the pilot: he came to, and aſked us for his coat. No body had promiſed him one; moreover, it is not a preſent that falls to the ſhare of pilots: when he found no attention paid to his demand, he began to threaten.

We menaced him in our turn, and ſhewed him a piſtol cocked, which ſilenced him: but he took his things, and went out of the bark muttering an oath that we ſhould be bound in that ſpot for fifteen days. He laughed at us, when informed that he ſhould not return to the bark without our pardon and leave, and went off. But finding nobody diſpatched after to pray him to come back, he returned of himſelf, in about an hour, and drawing near the bark, aſked if he might come on board. He was told he might,

and that in caſe of a relapſe, he ſhould not get off ſo eaſily.

Matters thus ſettled, we ſailed, but our bark ſoon after was found to be faſt, near to Deir, where we found we muſt turn back; for we found it impracticable to go up to the ſecond cataract on account of the perverſeneſs of Baram Cachef, with whom we diſputed for two days before we gave up the point, and turned back till we came to the cataract we had before ſeen.

Jan. 7th, we rowed hard all day, being encouraged by the wind and current, which then favoured us.

Jan. 8, 9, 10, paſſed in tolerable comfort: on the 11th, we again viewed the cataract.

Jan. 12. About mid-day the Aga's ſon came to us with a number of conveniencies to carry us to Eſſuaen. We immediately charged our baggage and departed. As we drew towards the city of Eſſuaen the Aga's ſon, who took the lead, turned from it; which to us, ſo often well treated, ſeemed a little ſurpriſing. We were conducted at length to what is called the Aga's Country-houſe. The Commandant of the port of the cataract was there before us: he had directed that on our arrival, all our luggage ſhould be brought in there; then ordered the door to be ſhut.

This myſterious proceeding did not very much alarm us, becauſe we were ſufficiently armed to oppoſe any attempt of his.

When he had paid the camel-drivers he ſaluted us, declaring at the ſame time that his motive for bringing us thither was to give the populace the double, who were all gathered at Eſſuaen to ſee us arrive; and having heard the treatment we had met with at Derri, might be tempted to repeat it; that they were deſtitute of ſufficient force to quell their populace, whenever they pleaſed to mutiny.

From

From the plauſibility of reaſons, we began to think better of him, and barring his never omitting an opportunity of extorting ſome little preſent, he did us all the ſervice in his power.

Our dwelling-place was very contemptible: a ſlave, appointed to wait on and obey us in every thing, delivered up the keys to us at night.

The only good article about this country-ſeat, was a large yard, full of ſheep and poultry, all at our ſervice, in paying for them; that is, dearer than at the publick market. We longed to leave our diſagreeable tenement.

Jan. 13th, we were told in the morning, that a ſmall bark then at Eſſuaen, offered to carry us down to Cairo. I went to ſee it: it was too ſmall, and the maſter aſked forty-five ſevillans for our paſſage. I did not ſtrike a bargain; and the ſon of the Aga, who came up to us, oppoſed it. Said the journey was fatiguing enough, without the farther anxiety of being cooped up, and that ſhortly there would be a large bark to carry us.

We waited till the 23d, on which day the bark was brought to the place of embarkation. I went to ſee, and found her roomy enough: empty ſhe drew but a foot and ſome inches water; was flat-bottomed: all this kind of barks are made of ſycamore-wood, of which alſo the mummy-caſes are made.

Towards evening we ſent a few preſents to Madam Sultaneſs, who, as ſhe ordered us to be informed, was highly pleaſed with them; but her unſatisfied huſband complained, he had not as yet got enough; making no allowance for all we had been drained of, or conſidering whether we had a ſufficiency left to defray our travelling expences to Cairo. He ſent us word, nevertheleſs, that next day he would order us conveniencies to carry us to the bark.

Not knowing the conſequence, we not only gave leave to bring on board, but advanced twelve parats to the Jew valet to buy dates, by the ſale of which he might get ſome profit at Cairo.

Jan. 24th, the camels and aſſes that were to carry our baggage came in the morning; we went on board in the afternoon.

Jan. 25th, the Reis prayed us to advance him fifteen ſevillans; for the ten advanced for him to the Aga he had not a penny of, nor every ſhould; ſo theſe unhappy wretches, fleeced by their unworthy ſuperiors, prey upon others as much as they can. On his ſaying he wanted the money to buy neceſſaries for himſelf and his men, we granted his requeſt; but, as we found after, he was ſecretly leagued with the Jew valet, to buy dates for the market of Cairo, which proved of great diſſervice to us.

In the evening the Reis, who had brought us up from Cairo to Eſſuaen, viſited, and preſented us with a ſheep in fine order, with a hamper full of their paſchal bread: we acquitted ourſelves to him for his generoſity.

Jan. 26th, The Reis who had carried us to, and brought us back from Derri, came on board with a pretended demand on us; nothing leſs than a coat, and ten piaſters. We referred him to the Cadis, who decided, he was not entitled to any thing from us.

In the evening we ſent to the Aga ſome concluſive trifling preſents, and four ſeviſſans for the uſe we had made of his country-houſe. He accepted the former articles, but objected to the littleneſs of the ſum; which, on due conſideration, and leſt we might neglect his letters, or prejudice him at Cairo, he accepted of, gave orders for our departure, and ſent the letters we were for to deliver him.

We had every thing made ready to go off in the night, as the Aga had adviſed, for the avoiding any inſult.

Jan. 27th, at one in the morning, our men began to ply their oars, and arrived at Gieſire Ell Manſoria.

The Cacheff of Eſnay was encamped there: he ordered us aſhore; we waited on him with ſome preſents, and found him alſo an inſatiable raſcal, like all the reſt.

Jan. 28th, he ſent us early in the morning two fat ſheep, by way of a civil dun for a great deal more than they were worth; in conſequence of which, he gave orders to the Reis to depart at two in the afternoon; but in the intermediate time was continually ſending for one thing or other, which, being trifles, we refuſed not.

Juſt as we were ſheering off, his laſt meſſage was to ſend ſomething that would make him vigorous in his ſeraglio. We could not help laughing at the demand, and to ſatisfy the confidence he had in us, ſent two bottles of Hungary water, of which we adviſed him to take a good doſe, night and morning.

We ſet off, and in a little time were right againſt the ancient temple of Konombu. I landed, in order to view it: walking thither I obſerved a great quantity of Pharoah's fowl following the Caſheff's little camp; ſome of them white-bodied, with black wings; others entirely black: they fed on what was thrown to them, and went among the tents like tame birds.

Jan. 29th and 30th, we were becalmed. Jan. 31ſt, lay by to repair our rudder. Feb. 1ſt, becalmed: we went aſhore in queſt of game. Feb. 2d, took in proviſions at Schagab. Feb. 3d, landed at Luxxor, and meaſured ſome monuments of antiquity. Feb. 4th, turned off our pilot. Feb. 5th

and 6th, Becalmed at Dandera. Feb. 7th and 8th, rowed by the city of Hau. Feb. 9th, ſtopped at Savacgel. Feb. 10th and 11th, obſtructed by ſand-banks, &c.

Feb. 12th, in the morning we went aſhore to take in proviſions. One of the fathers of the Hoſpitallity, ſollicited us for his paſſage to Grand Cairo, which we cheerfully granted. The Bey of Tſchirh was not yet returned; but the prince of Achmiin was in the city, in his way to Bardis, to hold a general aſſembly of all the Arabian Scheacks.

We were ready to depart, not dreaming of any obſtacles; when, behold, through the knavery of our Reis and the Jew valet, an embargo was laid on us: for theſe two worthy compeers, inſtead of declaring to the cuſtom-houſe a weight of thirty ardebs of their private traffic, only declared four, which fraud being detected by the ſearching officer, the bark was conſequently ſtopped, nor could be releaſed, until the cuſtoms for the entire cargo were paid off. We had our Reis called, but he had given us the ſlip, and gone on before us over land: for his knavery was too well known here to dare ſhew himſelf. However, he took care to ſend a pilot on board.

The whole afternoon was loſt in curing the miſchief cauſed by our date-merchants. The Director of the Cuſtom-houſe came on board, and, after ſome compliments declared a concern for his being obliged to require the opening of ſome of our coffers. And added, that a report was ſpread through the city, of our having many cheſts full of arms, "therefore, I believe, both for your ſafety and "mine," ſaid he, "the moſt prudent way will be "to open a few of them." His demand being reaſonable, we did not heſitate a moment to ſatisfy it. We deſired him to make choice of thoſe he would have opened. He fixed on two, which were

opened

opened in preſence of the cuſtom-houſe officer, and others who had followed him.

Finding nothing therein but neceſſary utenſils for our journey, he took his leave of us very politely.

As ſoon as the Director had left the bark, we ſheered off.

Feb. 13th, made but little progreſs. At eight o'clock in the evening, the prince of Achmiin arrived in a bark, attended by ſix more. He made no ſtay here; went off as he came, with drums beating.

I obſerved an iſland that the Nile had made this year, overagainſt Meſchie, ſituate on the other ſide of the river. The prince of Achmim had taken poſſeſſion of it; but the right thereto was diſputed by his neighbours, the inhabitants of Uladjecheche, who pretended it was their property, which cauſed a litigation between them.

Feb. 16th, arrived at Monfaluth: As ſoon as the cuſtom-houſe bark perceived ours, ſhe fired a muſket, the ſignal for us to bring to. If we had had no merchandize on board, we ſhould have expedited immediately; but thoſe unlucky dates were the occaſion of our being delayed till the next day.

Feb. 17th, the cuſtom rights paid, we put off in the morning, and ſoon reached Umel Gufuer. The inhabitants of this place are not celebrated for their honeſty; therefore it is not ſafe to go amonſt them. The Reis wanted to ſtop at Galanich. His view was to wait for ſome barks, in order to paſs in company with them before Stableantor. He dreaded the inhabitants of this place, infamous for their piracies.

Feb. 18th, at the break of day we put off, and, continuing our courſe, we paſſed at ten o'clock Schech Abade. In this place formerly ſtood the city of Antinopolis; ſome of its edifices ſtill re-

main; we had a partial view of them from the bark; there was no poſſibility of going aſhore. We paſſed on our left Ell Motta Ghara, oppoſite to a territory of the ſame name, that has a fine wood along the Nile, whoſe waters had carried off a great part of it this year.

At Menie our Reis paid the duty for his dates, which is very moderate, being ſolely appropriated to ſupport an Aga, fixed by the Baſha in this place, to collect the corn neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of the ſoldiers at Cairo.

Feb. 19th, we paſſed Saint Martha, where we ſaw thouſands of Cormorants, and a great quantity of Pharoah's fowl. Northward, and not far from it, appears ſomewhat like the ruins of ancient city contrived in the rock.

Feb. 21ſt, we put off from our moorings early in the morning, and got briſkly on till near Beneſoef, where we were entangled amongſt a little fleet of barks, laden with corn for Cairo.

At Beneſoef we were obliged to put to ſhore, to pay twenty-five parats, a duty exacted from every bark. We ſtopped an hour, and then put off. Very near Beneſoef we ſaw another bark a-ground. She had been attacked the preceding night by robbers, and not being in a condition of defence, her crew cut the rope ſhe was faſt to, and let her run adrift down the current: that threw her on the ſand.

Feb. 22d, we reached Sauvied El Maſluub, and paſſed the ſeven iſlands: we drew near to land in a place from whence there is a near view of the pyramids of Sakarra. The men plied their oars early in the morning, and got down to Old Cairo, and there anchored preciſely at the ſame place from whence we had departed the 18th of November of the preceding year. We ſent immediate advice of our arrival to Cairo, that next day convenient vehicles might be ſent to us.

Feb.

Feb. 24th, camels were brought to carry us and our baggage to the city. We arrived there at mid-day; and ſo ends the journal of my travels up and down the Nile.

A view of the preſent government of Egypt: and of its Origin.

SELIM I. Emperor of the Turks, compleated the conqueſt of Egypt in one campaign, which made him maſter of the kingdom, without reducing its inhabitants to an entire obedience; for Upper Egypt had not been invaded by the conqueror, and was governed by Arabian Sheacks, who acknowledged him for their maſter, in order to prevent their country's being ranſacked.

This the conqueror knew very well, and that thoſe ſubmiſſive to the yoke in his preſence, would ſhake it off in his abſence, unleſs ſome methods were inſtituted to prevent it. He conſequently eſtabliſhed a form of government, capable of inſuring him the poſſeſſion of the country, and of defending it in any caſe of emergency.

Since the foundation of the Ottoman monarchy, it has been an eſtabliſhed maxim at the Port, that when government was concerned, the rules of equity were to be ſuſpended; and that it was preferable to perpetrate the greateſt cruelties, rather than let the leaſt offence againſt the Sovereign's power eſcape unpuniſhed.

Selim was of a character to follow literally this barbarous maxim of his anceſtors. Being obliged to march elſewhere with his troops, and obſerving Egypt not to be ſufficiently ſubdued; to free himſelf from all apprehenſions on that head, by preventing revolutions, he eſtabliſhed a form of government, which, by the very nature of it, and with time, muſt reduce Egypt to the point he wished,

wiſhed, and, through the agency of a few Turks, left there for the execution of it.

Agreeable to his plan, he created a Baſha, on whom he conferred the entire government of Egypt. The power of this officer was deſpotic; he was accountable to the Emperor only for his conduct, according to whoſe will and pleaſure he was to be changed annually, or every two years.

Twenty-four Beys were inſtituted at the ſame time. Their commiſſion was to govern provinces, wherein they act as deſpotically as the Baſha does over the whole kingdom. They are nominated by the Baſha, and are anſwerable before him, as he is before the Porte. One of them attends the carats, or tributes, which are carried every year from Egypt to Conſtantinople; another accompanies the caravan to Mecca: thoſe unemployed aſſiſt once a week at the divan, or council of the Baſha, to learn the orders of the Grand Seignior, and to conſult with the Baſha on the eaſieſt and propereſt means of executing them.

When Egypt ſends her contingent, or any troops to the Emperors, they are commanded by a Bey. The place of High Chancellor is always filled by one of that corps. Once a Bey, or Beg, the title remains during life: the different commiſſions they are entruſted with are but of precarious duration, and that is according to the Baſha's pleaſure.

From what has been ſaid, one might incline to think, that the ſupreme power in Egypt is in the hands of the Baſha, and that all other authority is divided among the different Beys: but this magnificent image will loſe greatly of its firſt appearance, on reflexion of their power's being but biennial, and that they have no troops at their diſpoſal.

Selim, after the total defeat of the Mamelukes, having thus diſpoſed the firſt places of the government,

ment, introduced a militia on the ſame footing of that among the Turks, confined it to a certain number of men, for the moſt part raiſed in Egypt, intermixed with a few others drafted from the provinces of the empire, and ſome Turks, who remained in the country.

This militia was divided into ſeveral military claſſes, according to the practice of the Ottoman empire; and thoſe diviſions are known by the name of Portes.

But as the only diſtinguiſhed among them are the janiſſaries and aſſafs, and that the particulars of all the others would fain paſs for one of thoſe two corps, I ſhall give an ample account of them, omitting the reſt.

They differ but in number, which is ſometimes greater in one than the other. In every thing elſe their government and diſcipline are exactly alike, which does not prevent their living in perpetual jealouſy with each other; for which in all appearance, the janiſſaries are moſt in fault, becauſe looking on themſelves as the more formidable, they affect a haughtineſs to the others; and though in valour they be far inferior to thoſe of Conſtantinople, yet they glory in the title, and deſpiſe even other corps.

Every porte is commanded by an Aga, which officer is not nominated by the Baſha. He muſt be elected by the corps, and be veſted with the caffetan, or brevet, of the Grand Seignior. He concerns himſelf only about the intereſt of his porte. He aſſiſts at the Grand Divan; preſides over the council of his own corps; has under him ſubaltern officers, called Kiaja, or Kieche, and Sious.

By Kiaja, or Kieche, is underſtood a ſpecies of colonels, who alſo attend the Baſha's divan, being ſometimes perſons of great importance. They form a com-

executioners. Having power of life and death, his preſence creates an awe wherever he goes. Luckily his approach is known at a good diſtance, and they take care to hide themſelves in their houſes, or eſcape into the next ſtreets.

Although I have already ſaid, that the Beys are generally the Governors of the provinces, there are ſome exceptions; for in ſeveral places the government is in the hands of Cachefs, or Caimakans: the former govern three or four villages at a time, the latter but one. They both enjoy the ſame privileges that a Bey does in his province. The only difference between the Cachef and the Caimakan, conſiſts in the former's diſtrict being larger than that of the latter.

In religious matters, Egypt is governed by a Mufti, and the doctors of the law. They judge in all ſpiritual cauſes, and have alſo ſome ſhare in the ſecular government; but their political conduct is to trim between contending factions, ſometimes learning to the one, ſometimes to the other; but to always attach themſelves to that which prevails, and but during the time it can maintain is ſuperiority.

A View of the Arabian States.

I SHALL endeavour, according to the beſt information I could get, to give ſome account of the Arabian princes; how they conduct themſelves, and what were the means they employed to reduce them to obedience.

The Arabians in the Delta, and above Cairo, as far as Beneſoeff, are divided into Felaques and Bedouins. The former are peaſants that dwell in villages, and entirely ſubjected to the government. The latter are diſtributed in clans, each having a chief, whom they call Scheach. They live always in

in tents, and each band of them forms a little camp. Having no property in land they ſhift their dwelling-places whenever they pleaſe ſo to do.

When they intend to abide in any diſtrict for a certain time, they make a previous agreement with the Bey, the Cacheff, or the Caimakan for a grant of tilling a ſtipulated portion of land during one year, or of feeding their flock the time they ſhall have agreed for.

The contract made they live quietly, go to, and return from the neighbouring villages or towns, where they ſell or purchaſe according to their exigence, and enjoy all the liberty they could deſire.

They are treated with more mildneſs than any of the Grand Seignior's other ſubjects. Having nothing, nothing can be extorted from them; and if they were to be otherwiſe harraſſed, the conſequence would no doubt be dangerous.

It would be advantageous for Egypt if all the Arabians acted in the regular manner laid down. The country would not want hands to cultivate it. The officers of the government would receive the tributes more exactly, by which means thoſe payable to the Grand Seignior, would be the ſooner ſupplied.

But unhappily thoſe Bedouins are of too inconſtant a temper, and ſometimes too knaviſh to lead ſo quiet and uniform a life. When they have any way emancipated themſelves, and that in conſequence they are afraid of the purſuits of juſtice; or, if they have been injured, they immediately pack up their bagg ge, quit the territory, and form plots with other camps, by which means they encreaſe in number, chuſe a proper leader, then make good their quarter in what country they pleaſe. They no longer trouble themſelves about tilling land, but reap whatever corn they find.

Such

Such plundering ruins the Felaques who are hereby rendered inſolvent of their tribute: and as the grand Seignior makes no allowance for their deficiencies, it falls on the Baſha or other officers to find ways and means of raiſing the neceſſary ſums, and make up for thoſe that become incapable of paying.

Another kind of Arabians inhabit the mountains over againſt Ell Gurzone. They are conſummate villains, rob on the river, and on land: their body is not very numerous. The Bey of Girge is conſtantly in purſuit of them: they notwithſtanding ſupport themſelves, to the great detriment of the navigation on the Nile.

I thought it neceſſary to give a proper idea of the Arabians of thoſe parts, that they might not be confounded with thoſe of Upper Egypt, of whom I ſhall give an account. Ever ſince the conqueſt of Selim, they have kept poſſeſſion, and even the ſovereignty of their country.

Arabian Princes, called Sheacks, poſſeſs all that part of Egypt, which extends on both ſides of the Nile from Girge to Eſſiuen. They are tributary to the Grand Seignior. When the father dies, the ſon who ſucceeds is obliged to pay an acknowledgment to the Baſha. That is called the purchaſe of the lands of the deceaſed father: but if a father abdicates in favour of his ſon, the ſon is not to pay the above acknowledgment during his father's life.

Suppoſe, for example, that a father has left ten children, without having fixed the ſucceſſion on any one. The affair is brought to Cairo, where the Baſha never fails to decide that the ſucceſſion ſhall be divided among the brothers; who are never pleaſed with ſuch a ſentence: and the Baſha, not being able to execute it by force, the brothers mutually maintain their pretenſions by arms.

In-

In the end, the conquerors are obliged to have recourſe anew to the Baſha to confirm them in their rights to the dominion, which is obtainable but by a good ſum of money. Beſides, the Baſha makes uſe of that occaſion to raiſe the tribute thoſe princes pay to the Porte.

Such of the Arabian Princes as are powerful enough to make themſelves reſpected, are commonly flattered, and their friendſhip is courted by the Beys, and other officers of the Porte, who have any ſhare in the government. The places they are charged with being ſo liable to frequent revolutions, they ſtrive, while in, to make friends of the Arabian Princes, that they may hereafter find an aſylum among them, ſhould the ſituation of their affairs compel them to fly thither for ſafety.

Advice to a curious traveller in Egypt.

WHAT I have here to ſay regards only thoſe gentlemen who travel, in order to make uſeful reſearches for the republic of letters; the mercantile people who go to Egypt, will, from the trading people they are addreſſed to there, receive all neceſſary inſtructions for their purpoſes.

I conclude, from experience, that a banker is of more ſervice in Egypt, than in any other place, where money is the only thing required of them. But here they muſt alſo be your hoſt, and a kind of protector. There are no inns fit to entertain a gentleman: the banker then muſt provide you all the neceſſaries of life, either in his own houſe, or in that of ſome friend. If he be of a nation that has a Conſul there, this miniſter furniſhes the protection. If the banker be even a Jew, and a man of capacity, he will be of weight enough to ſecure a traveller from any inſult.

My

My firſt advice fulfilled, in the article of having a good banker; my next is relative to the journey.

Begin by dreſſing yourſelf in the Turkiſh manner; for though at Alexandria you may appear in an European dreſs, it is better to be habited like the Franks, which the people are more uſed to, and by which means you will ſooner come at the knowledge of their cuſtoms, and uſages of the country, and be leſs expoſed to reflections of comers and goers.

Thus accoutred, here is a janiſſary for your ſervice, and, if poſſible, one who has been uſed to ſerve the Franks. Janiſſaries are to be had on very reaſonable terms. They commonly ſpeak what is called *Lingua Franca*. They accompany a traveller to every place it is lawful for him to approach. No body will dare to inſult you while he is by. If they meet a perſon of diſtinction, they know how to give an account to him of thoſe they eſcorte; and if the rabble offer to gather round you, they diſperſe them with menaces.

I ſtrenuouſly adviſe you to beware viſiting forbidden places, unleſs beforehand provided with a permiſſion.

Whilſt at Alexandria, there is no neceſſity of having an interpreter. It is proper for thoſe who intend to go any farther to have at leaſt a valet, who underſtands and ſpeaks Arabic.

When at Alexandria, ſhould it ſo fall out, do not let ſlip an opportunity of travelling in company with the miſſionaries, or any European merchants; for beſides the advantage of their underſtanding the language, you may truſt to the relations of ſuch creditable people.

Let this be a rule for your conduct, not only in Alexandria, but all over Egypt; "Never dig under "any antiquity; never break off a piece of ſtone "from any monument whatever."

A Con-

A Conſul of France attempted to dig near the obeliſk of Cleopatra, in order to come at a knowledge of its juſt dimenſions. Before he began, he took care to have permiſſion, which was with great difficulty obtained.

Notwithſtanding the permiſſion, he could not accompliſh his deſign. What he had dug by day, the natives filled up by night.

This obſtinate oppoſition to all attempts ariſes from the perſuaſion of the people, the high and the low, that their antique monuments cover ſome hidden treaſure: nor can they imagine that mere curioſity brings ſtrangers into Egypt only to dig ground.

The antiquities at Alexandria, whether medals, engraved ſtones, and other ſuch articles, are diſcovered in rainy weather, when the incumbent dirt is waſhed away.

I ſhall ſay nothing of the peril a ſtranger expoſes himſelf to, who ſhould be weak enough to give into an amorous intrigue. I ſuppoſe, that whoever, for inſtruction ſake, takes the trouble of travelling to Egypt in reſearch after antiquities, is a ſober and continent man, and has nothing to fear on that head.

They will inform him that young merchants have been aſſaſſinated in thoſe two cities. That others, after having ſpent their all, to make the janiſſaries not reveal their ſecret, found themſelves ſo egregiouſly bubbled in the end, that inſtead of having enjoyed ladies of diſtinction, ſome high-blooded kinſwomen of Cleopatra's, they had been the paramours of moſt abandoned proſtitutes, who, in order that their dear Strephons ſhould never forget their kindneſs, had given them a memento indelible by time, place, or mercury.

Whatever elſe remains neceſſary for a traveller to know he will learn immediately after his arrival in the country. I thought it neceſſary to inſtruct him

about the articles I have touched on; for perhaps on the ſpot, the information would be too late: add to that, the neceſſary diffidence of believing all that is ſaid there.

For my part, I confeſs, I ſhould have been very glad, to have had ſuch information given me beforehand, and I publiſh them from the honeſt motive of their being uſeful to curious travellers, who ſhall hereafter be in ſituations like to thoſe I have been in.

THE

TRAVELS

THROUGH THE

BRITISH COLONIES,

In NORTH AMERICA.

By PETER KALM,

Profeſſor of Œconomy in the Swediſh Univerſity of Aobo.

THE learned and very induſtrious profeſſor, whoſe travels I am going to lay before the reader, was ſent to explore the natural hiſtory of the continent of North America, under the patronage of the celebrated Count Teſſin, and partly at the expence of the univerſities of Aobo and Upſal, having been recommended for the purpoſe, by Dr. Linnæus: he left Upſal in October 1747, and the 17th of February arrived in London: he made ſome ſtay in England; ſo that he did not land in Pennſylvania till September. His work is crowded with an amazing number of important particulars, which let us into a good idea of the agriculture, rural œconomy, manufactures, &c. of our coloniſts. Theſe intereſting parts of his book I ſhall ſelect, keeping to the narrative of his journal.

Aug. 5, 1748, I with my ſervant Lars Yungſtram, who joined to his abilities, as gardener, a tolerable ſkill in mechanics and drawing, embarked at Gravelend. Sept. 14th we ſaw the land of Pennſylvania: the fine woods of oak, hiccory, and firs in the bay of Delawar, covering both ſhores, made a fine appear-

pearance; and were partly employed in ſhip-building at Philadelphia, for which purpoſe, every year ſome Engliſh captains take a paſſage in autumn for this town, and ſuperintend the building of new ſhips during the winter, with which they go to ſea the next ſpring time.

I lodged at Philadelphia; I and my ſervant had a room, candles, beds, attendance, and three meals a day, for twenty ſhillings per week Pennſylvania currency: but wood, waſhing, and wine, were to be paid for beſides.

This town is about an Engliſh mile in length; and in breadth about half a mile. The houſes make a good appearance, are built of brick or ſtone, and covered with ſhingles of white cedar: many manufactures are eſtabliſhed in imitation of thoſe in England. yet none for making fine cloth, as the breed of ſheep which is brought over, degenerates and affords but a coarſe wool. Here are plenty of proviſions, and their prices very moderate.

Sept. 18, I went to the country-ſeat of Mr. Bartram, about four miles ſouth of Philadelphia. This country was a plain, covered with all kinds of deciduous trees: the ground was ſandy mixed with clay. In ſome parts the wood was cut down, and we ſaw the habitations of ſome country people, whoſe corn-fields and plantations were round their farm-houſes: the wood was full of mulberry-trees, walnut-trees of ſeveral kinds, cheſnut-trees, ſaſſafras, and the like. Several ſorts of wild vines claſped their tendrils round, and climbed up to the ſummits of the higheſt trees.

The country people in Sweden and Finland guard their turneps more carefully than the people here do the moſt exquiſite fruits. Every countryman has an orchard full of peach-trees, which were covered with ſuch quantities of fruit, that we could ſcarce walk in the orchard, without treading upon

thoſe

thoſe which were fallen off: this fine fruit was frequently given to ſwine. The cattle here are neither houſed in winter nor tended in the fields.

The winters in Pennſylvania are much colder than the Engliſh ones.

There are different ſpecies of mulberry-trees, which grow wild in the foreſts of north and ſouth America: but it would not be worth while to erect any ſilk manufactories here, as labour is ſo dear: a man gets from one ſhilling and ſixpence to three ſhillings and upwards for one day's work, and the women are paid in proportion. They are therefore of opinion that the cultivation of all ſorts of corn, of hemp, and of flax, would be of greater advantage.

Vines are in the ſame plenty; but the ſame objection lies againſt making wine as againſt ſilk, the neceſſary hands are too ſcarce.

I aſked Mr. Bartram whether he had obſerved in his travels, that the water was fallen, and that the ſea had formerly covered any places which were now land: he told me that from what he had experienced, he was convinced that the greateſt part of this country had formerly been under water: the reaſons which led him to give credit to this opinion were the following.

1. On digging in the blue mountains, which are above three hundred miles from the ſea, you find looſe oyſter and other ſhells.

2. A vaſt quantity of petrified ſhells are found in lime-ſtone, flint, and ſand-ſtone on the ſame mountains.

3. On digging wells the people have met with trees, roots, and leaves of oak for the greateſt part not yet rotten at the depth of eighteen feet.

4. When the ſavages are told that ſhells are found on the blue mountains, and that from thence, there is reaſon to believe, that the ſea muſt formerly have

extended to them, and even in part flown over them; they answer, that this is not new to them, they having a tradition from their ancestors among them, that the sea formerly surrounded these mountains.

5. The water likewise in rivers and brooks decreases. Mills, which sixty years ago were built on rivers, and at that time had a sufficient supply of water almost all the year long, have, at present, so little, that they cannot be used but after a heavy rain, or when the snow melts in spring. This decrease of water in part arises from the great quantity of land which is now cultivated.

The shells, which are to be found petrified on the northern mountains, are of such kinds as at present are not to be got in the sea in the same latitude, nor on the shore till you come to South Carolina. Mr. Bartram from hence took an occasion to defend Dr. Thomas Burnet's opinion, that the earth before the deluge was in a different position towards the sun. He likewise asked, whether the great bones, which are sometimes found in the ground in Siberia, and which are supposed to be elephants bones, and tusks, did not confirm this opinion: for at present those animals cannot live in such cold countries; but if, according to Dr. Burnet, the sun once formed different zones about our earth from those it now makes, the elephant may easily be supposed to have lived in Siberia.

Upon this another ingenious writer observes, That the bones and tusks of elephants are not only found in Russia, but also in the canton of Basil in Switzerland, in the dominions of the Marquis of Bareith in Franconia, and more instances are found in the Protogæa of the celebrated Leibnitz. Lately near the river Ohio, have been discovered a great number of skeletons of elephants with their tusks, and very remarkable grinders still

ſticking in their jaw-bones, which were ſent to the Britiſh Muſeum. The late Doctor Littleton, Biſhop of Carliſle, alſo lodged ſome teeth, ſticking in their jaw-bones, in the Muſeum of the Royal Society, which were brought from Peru. The rivers Chatunga and Indighirka, in Siberia, are remarkable for affording on their banks great quantities of bones and tuſks of elephants, which being preſerved there by the great froſt, and in the ſhort ſummer of a few weeks, the rain being rare, theſe tuſks are commonly ſo freſh that they are employed in Ruſſia as common ivory on account of the great quantities brought from theſe places; ſame of them were eight feet long, and of three hundred pounds weight. There have been found grinders of nine inches diameter. But the American grinders of elephants from near the Ohio are yet more remarkable on account of their being provided with crowns on their tops. ſuch as are only found in the carnivorous animals, and ſuch as feed on hard bones or nuts. Whilſt on the contrary, elephants at preſent feeding on grapes and ſoft vegetables, have no ſuch crowns at the tops of their grinders. This circumſtance of the difference in the foſſil grinders of elephants from thoſe in the living ones, and the place where theſe ſkeletons were found in, viz. Siberia, Germany, and America, where at preſent no elephants are to be met with, opens a wide field to conjectures in regard to the way by which theſe animals were carried to thoſe ſpots. The flood in the deluge perhaps has carried them thither: nor is it contrary to reaſon, hiſtory, or revelation to believe theſe ſkeletons to be the remainders of animals which lived on the ſurface of this globe anterior to the Moſaic creation which may be conſidered only as a new modification of the creatures living on this globe, adapted to its preſent ſtate, under which it will remain till circumſtances will make a new change neceſſary, and then our globe will,

will, by a new creation or revolution, appear more adapted to its ſtate, and be ſtocked with a ſet of animals more ſuitable to that ſtate. Every man uſed to philoſophy or reaſoning, will find that this plan gives a grand idea of the Creator, his œconomy and management of the univerſe.

The corn which the Indians chiefly cultivate is the maize; they have little corn-fields for that purpoſe: but, beſides this, they likewiſe plant a great quantity of ſquaſhes, or melons.

October 7th, we croſſed the Delaware in a boat to the other ſide, which belongs to New Jerſey. The country here is very different from that in Pennſylvania, for here the ground is almoſt mere ſand, but in the other province it is mixed with a good deal of clay, and this makes the ground pretty rich. A ſoil like this of New Jerſey one might be led to think could produce nothing, becauſe it is ſo dry and poor, yet the maize grows extremely well. The earth is of that kind in which tobacco commonly ſucceeds, but it is not near ſo rich. The ſtalks of maize are about eight feet high, and are full of leaves. The maize is planted in rows, or little ſquares, ſo that there is a ſquare of five feet and ſix inches between each ſquare, both in length and breadth: on each of theſe little hills three or four ſtalks come up, which were not yet cut for the cattle. In ſome places, the ground between the maize is plowed, and rye ſowed on it; ſo that when the maize is cut, the rye remains upon the field.

We frequently ſaw aſparagus growing near the encloſures, in a looſe ſoil on uncultivated fields.

Agriculture is in a very bad ſtate in New Jerſey. A perſon buys an uncleared piece of land, cuts down part of the wood, tears up the roots, plows the ground, and the firſt time gets a plentiful crop: by a repetition of plowing, this piece becomes poor,

he clears another part, and in time the firſt part recovers its fertility.

Oct. 27th, I ſet out for New-York: no manufactures of note have as yet been eſtabliſhed in that city: they get all manufactured goods, ſuch as woollen and linen cloth, &c. from England.

The river Hudſon is very convenient for the commerce of this city, as it is navigable for near one hundred and fifty Engliſh miles up the country.

The winter in New-York is much more ſevere than in Pennſylvania; it being nearly as cold as in ſome of the provinces of Sweden: its continuance, however, is much ſhorter than with us. Their ſpring is early, and their autumn late, and the heat in ſummer exceſſive: for this reaſon, the melons ſown in the field are ripe at the beginning of Auguſt, whereas we can hardly bring them ſo ſoon to maturity under glaſſes and hot-beds. The water-melons which are cultivated near the town grow very large.

Iron is dug in ſuch quantities in Pennſylvania and in the other American provinces of the Engliſh, that they could ſupply all England with that commodity. At preſent, great quantities are ſent to the Weſt-Indies, and they have lately begun to trade to Europe with it.

Graſſes, which in the woods of America are chiefly annuals, are much deſtroyed by conſtantly feeding with vaſt numbers of cattle: it is eaten before it can produce flowers and fruit: we need not therefore wonder that the graſs is ſo thin on fields, hills, and paſtures, in theſe provinces. This is likewiſe the reaſon why travellers in New-Jerſey, Pennſylvania, and Maryland, find many difficulties, eſpecially in winter, to get forwards with their own horſes, for the graſs in theſe provinces is not very abundant.

[*From this remark of Profeſſor Kalm, we find that there are no inns in America, for if there were, ſurely, for pay, they would lay by ſome hay and oats for tra-*

travellers horſes, or whatever corn is uſed for horſes.]

The ſervants which are made uſe of in the Engliſh American colonies, are either free perſons or ſlaves; and the former are again of two different ſorts.

1. Thoſe who are quite free ſerve by the year, they are not only allowed to leave their ſervice at the expiration of the year, but may leave it at any time, when they do not agree with their maſters.

2. The ſecond kind of free ſervants, conſiſts of ſuch perſons as annually come from Germany, England, and other countries, in order to ſettle here. Theſe new comers are very numerous; being poor, and not having money to pay their paſſage, they agree with the captain, that they will ſuffer themſelves to be ſold for a few years on their arrival. In that caſe the perſon who buys them, pays the freight for them. Such ſervants are taken preferable to all others, becauſe they are not ſo dear: they commonly pay fourteen pounds Pennſylvania currency for a perſon who is to ſerve four years, and ſo on in proportion.

It does not ſeem difficult to find out the reaſons why the people multiply more here than in Europe. As ſoon as a perſon is old enough, he may marry in theſe provinces, without any fear of poverty, for there is ſuch a tract of good ground yet uncultivated, that a new-married man can without difficulty get a ſpot of ground, where he may ſufficiently ſubſiſt with his wife and children. The taxes are very low, and he need not be under any concern on their account. The liberties he enjoys are ſo great, that he conſiders himſelf as a Prince in his poſſeſſions.

Fleas in this part of the world are numerous. The Indians have immenſe quantities; it is eaſy to conceive that the many dogs they keep, breed them without end. Dogs and men lie promiſcuouſly in the huts; and a ſtranger can hardly lie down and

ſhut his eyes, but he is in danger of being either ſqueezed to death or ſtifled by a dozen or more dogs, which lie round him and upon him in order to have a good reſting place. For I imagine they do not expect that ſtrangers will venture to beat them, or throw them off as their maſters and miſtreſſes commonly do.

The roads in New Jerſey are good or bad as it chances. The people being very careleſs in mending them.

The farms are moſt of them ſingle, and you ſeldom meet with even two together, except in towns, or places which are intended for towns; therefore there are but few villages. Each farm has its cornfields, its woods, its paſtures, and meadows.

Many of the inhabitants in New Jerſey plant ſaffron; but it is not ſo good and ſo ſtrong as the Engliſh ſaffron. The inhabitants of Salem ſow cotton.

May 19th, I left Raccoon in New Jerſey, and on the road ſaw a black ſnake. This is the ſwifteſt of all the ſnakes which are to be found here, for it moves ſo quick, that a dog can hardly catch it. It is therefore almoſt impoſſible for a man to eſcape it if purſued; but happily its bite is neither poiſonous nor dangerous. They ſeldom do any harm except in ſpring, when they copulate; but if any body comes in their way at that time, they will attack him. I am acquainted with ſeveral people, who have on ſuch an occaſion run ſo hard as to be quite out of breath in endeavouring to eſcape the ſnake, which moved with the ſwiftneſs of an arrow after them. If a perſon thus purſued can muſter up courage enough to oppoſe the ſnake with a ſtick or any thing elſe, when it is either paſſed by him, or when he ſteps aſide to avoid it, it will turn back again, and ſeek a refuge in its ſwiftneſs. I have been aſſured by ſeveral, that when it overtakes a perſon, who has tried to eſcape it, and who has not courage enough to oppoſe it, it winds round his feet

ſeet ſo as to make him fall down; it then bites him ſeveral times in the leg, or whatever part it can get hold of, and goes off again. Many people at Albany told me of an accident which happened to a young lady who went out in ſummer, together with many other girls, attended by her negroe. She ſat down in the wood in a place, when the others were running about, and before ſhe was aware, a black ſnake being diſturbed in its amours, ran under her petticoats, and twiſted around her waiſt, ſo that ſhe fell backwards in a ſwoon, occaſioned by her fright, or by the compreſſion which the ſnake cauſed. The negroe came up to her, and ſuſpecting that a black ſnake might have hurt her, on making uſe of a remedy to bring his lady to herſelf again, he lifted up her cloaths and really found the ſnake wound about her body as cloſe as poſſible; the negroe was not able to tear it away, and therefore cut it, and the girl came to herſelf again.

This ſnake is very greedy of milk, and it is difficult to keep it out, when it is once uſed to get into a cellar where milk is kept. It has been ſeen eating milk out of the ſame diſh with children, without biting them, though they often gave it blows with the ſpoon upon the head when it was over greedy.

I have often obſerved with aſtoniſhment on my travels, the great difference between the plants and the ſoil, on the two oppoſite banks of brooks. Sometimes a brook which one can ſtride over, has plants on one bank, widely different from thoſe on the oppoſite bank. Therefore, whenever I came to a great brook, or a river, I expected to find plants, which I had not met with before. Their ſeeds are carried down with the ſtream from diſtant parts.

June 10th we left New York, and ſailed up the river Hudſon in a yacht bound for Albany. As we proceeded, we found the eaſtern banks of the river very much cultivated, and a number of pretty farms

ſurrounded with orchards, and fine corn-fields preſented themſelves to our view.

The greater part of the merchants of Albany have extenſive eſtates in the country, and a great deal of wood. If their eſtates have a little brook, they do not fail to erect a ſaw-mill upon it, for ſawing boards and planks, with which commodity many yachts go during the whole ſummer to New-York, having ſcarce any other lading than boards.

June 21ſt we left Albany, and proceeded towards Canada. We had two men with us, who were to accompany us to the firſt French place, which is fort St. Frederick, or as the Engliſh call it, Crown Point.

July 2, 1749, we arrived at Crown Point, &c. from hence we ſailed along Lake Champlain for Canada. The country behind the high mountains on the weſtern ſide of the lake, is, as I am told, covered with a tall foreſt, interſected by many rivers and brooks, with marſhes and ſmall lakes.

July 21ſt, About four miles from Fort Saint John, the country is all cultivated. The farms ſtood ſcattered, and each of them was ſurrounded by its corn-fields and meadows: the houſes are built of wood, and very ſmall. The ſoil is good, flat, and divided by ſeveral rivulets; and only in a few places there are ſome little hills.

July 24th we arrived at Montreal, where we found the land well cultivated, as it is from thence to Quebec, which is one hundred and eighty miles: the farm-houſes are never above five arpens, and ſometimes but three aſunder, a few places excepted. The proſpect is exceedingly beautiful, when the river goes on for ſome miles together in a ſtrait line, becauſe it then ſhortens the diſtances between the houſes, and makes them form one continued village.

Aug.

Aug. 2d, left Montreal, and came to Trois Rivieres, where are iron forges: they caſt cannon, iron ſtoves, kettles, &c.

Aug. 4th, we went on for Quebec. The ſhores of the river are cloſely inhabited for about three quarters of a mile. All the rivulets falling into the river Saint Lawrence are likewiſe well inhabited on both ſides. The fields are generally ſown with wheat-oats, maize, and peaſe. Gourds and water-melons are planted in abundance.

The 5th, we arrived at Quebec.

Some years before I came to Quebec, the then Governor General, Chevalier de Beanharnois, gave M. de Verandrier Morder an order to go from Canada with a number of people on an expedition acroſs North America to the South-ſea, in order to examine how far thoſe two places are diſtant from each other, and to find out what advantages might acrue to Canada or Louiſiana from a communication with that ocean. They ſet out on horſeback from Montreal, and went as much due weſt as they could on account of the lakes, rivers, and mountains which fell in their way. As they came far into the country beyond many nations, they ſometimes met with large tracts of land, free from wood, but covered with a kind of very tall graſs. Many of theſe fields were every where covered with furrows as if they had been plowed formerly. It is to be obſerved that the nations which now inhabit North America could not cultivate the land in this manner, becauſe they never made uſe of horſes, oxen, ploughs, or any inſtruments of huſbandry, nor had they ever ſeen a plough before the Europeans came to them. In two or three places at a conſiderable diſtance from each other, our travellers met impreſſions of the feet of grown people and children in a rock; but this ſeems to have been no more than a *luſus naturæ*. When they came far to the weſt, where, to the beſt of their

knowledge, no Frenchman or European had ever been, they found in one place in the woods, and again on a large plain, great pillars of ſtone leaning upon each other. The pillars conſiſted of one ſingle ſtone each, and the Frenchmen could not but ſuppoſe that they had been erected by human hands. Sometimes they have found ſuch ſtones laid upon one another, and as it were formed into a wall. In ſome of thoſe places, where they found ſuch ſtones, they could not find any other ſorts of ſtones. They have not been able to diſcover any characters or writing upon any of theſe ſtones. At laſt they met with a large ſtone like a pillar, and in it a ſmaller ſtone was fixed, which was covered on both ſides with unknown characters. This ſtone, which was about a foot of French meaſure in length, and between four or five inches broad, they broke looſe and carried to Canada, from whence it was ſent to France. The jeſuits of Canada affirm, that the letters are Tartarian characters.

The places where the pillars ſtood are near nine hundred French miles weſtward of Montreal. The Frenchmen ſent to examine the country, joined a party of Indians who were at war with a neighbouring tribe, and in an engagement ſome were taken priſoners; the reſt returned, having got the information, that the South Sea was but a few days journey off; that they (the Indians) often traded with the Spaniards on that coaſt, and ſometimes likewiſe they went to Hudſon's bay to trade with the Engliſh. Some of theſe Indians had houſes that were made of earth. Many nations had never ſeen any Frenchman; they were commonly clad in ſkins, but many were quite naked.

All thoſe who had made long journies in Canada to the South, but chiefly weſtward, agreed, that there were many great plains, deſtitute of trees, where the land was furrowed as if it had been ploughed.

In

In what manner this happened no one knows; for the corn-fields of a great village or town of the Indians are ſcarce above four or five of our acres in extent; whereas thoſe furrowed plains ſometimes continue for ſeveral days journey.

Here it is obſerved by the tranſlator, "That the "account of the Tartarian characters ſeems to be "highly probable, for we find in Marco Paolo, that "Kublai Khan, one of the ſucceſſors of Genghiz-"khan, after the conqueſt of the ſouthern part of "China, ſent ſhips out to conquer the kingdom of "Japan, or, as they called it, Nipangri, but, in a "terrible ſtorm, the whole fleet was caſt away, and "nothing was ever heard of the men in that fleet. "It ſeems that ſome of theſe ſhips were caſt to the "ſhores oppoſite the Great American Lakes, be-"tween forty and fifty degrees, north latitude, and "there probably erected theſe monuments and "where the anceſtors of ſome nations, who are "called Mozomlecks, and have ſome degree of civi-"lization. Another part of this fleet, it ſeems, "reached the country oppoſite Mexico, and there "founded the Mexican empire, which, according "to their own records, as preſerved by the Spa-"niards, and in their painted annals in Purchas's "Pilgrimage, are very recent, ſo that they can "ſcarcely remember any more than ſeven princes "before Motezuma II. who was reigning when "the Spaniards arrived there in 1519, under Fer-"nando Cortez, conſequently the firſt of theſe "princes, ſuppoſing each had a reign of thirty "three years, four months, and adding to it the "ſixteen years of Motezuma, began to reign in "1270, when Kublai Khan, the conqueror of all "China, and of Japan, was on the throne, and "in whoſe time happened, I believe, the firſt abor-"tive expedition to Japan, which I mentioned a-"bove, and probably furniſhed North America,

"with

"with civilized inhabitants. There is, if I am "not miſtaken, a great ſimilarity between the fi- "gures of the Mexican idols, and thoſe which are "uſual among the Tartars who embrace the doc- "trines and religion of the Dalai Lama, whoſe re- "ligion Kublai Khan firſt introduced among the "Monguls or Moguls. The ſavage Indians of "North America it ſeems have another origin, and "are probably deſcended from the Yukaghiri and "Tchuchtchai inhabitants of the moſt eaſterly and "northerly part of Aſia, where, according to the "accounts of the Ruſſians there is but a ſmall tract "to America. The ferocity of theſe nations ſimi- "lar to that of the Americans, their way of paint- "ing, their fondneſs of inebriating liquors, (which "the Yukaghiri prepare from poiſonous and ine- "briating muſhrooms bought of the Ruſſians) and "many other things ſhew them plainly to be of the "ſame origin. The Eſkimaux ſeem to be ſame "nation with the inhabitants of Greenland, the "Samoyedes, and Lapponians. South America, "and eſpecially Peru, is probably peopled from the "great unknown ſouthern continent, which is ve- "ry near America, civilized, and full of inhabi- "tants of various colours; who therefore might "very eaſily be caſt on the American continent in "boats or proas."

Sept. 11th we left Quebec.

Every farmer in Canada plants a quantity of to- bacco near his houſe in proportion to the ſize of his family. And every family cultivates a piece of flax for their own manufacture.

The 15th we got back to Montreal.

[*From theſe general obſervations we learn, with ſome degree of accuracy, the nature of the territories through which Mr. Kalm travelled, their climate, productions, face of the country, and population, all which are of conſequence. As to the botanical part we refer the curious Reader to the* original.]

TRAVELS

THROUGH

THE LEVANT,

BY

FREDERICK HASSELQUIST, M.D.

In 1749, 50, 51 and 52.

NOTHING is neceſſary to lay before the Reader, concerning Dr. Haſſelquiſt and his travels, except the circumſtance of his being one of the ſeveral learned Botaniſts, who were ſent by the univerſity of Upſal into different parts of the world in order to improve Botany and General Natural Hiſtory: we have already abridged Kalm who was ſent elſewhere on the ſame errand: Dr. Haſſelquiſt is not inferior. His journal was publiſhed by Sir Charles Linnæus, by the order and at the expence of the preſent Queen of Sweden, who advanced the money for redeeming the great collection of curioſities which he made on his journey, and which his creditors after his death at Smyrna had ſeized.

Aug. 7th, 1749, I went on board the ſhip Ulrica. The 3d of Sept. we entered the narroweſt part of the channel between France and England. The 25th we came into the Spaniſh ſea, having in two days and an half ſailed five hundred and four miles. Oct. 15th, we ſaw Gibraltar, and the 28th of Nov. we arrived at Smyrna.

Barnaba is a pretty village near Smyrna. The huſbandmen were ploughing the fallowed land. The ſoil

foil is here quite looſe. They uſe oxen to till the fields.

Mar. 11th, I ſet out for Magneſia, which is eight hours travelling from Smyrna. Here might be planted good vineyards as well as about Smyrna. Here a number of ſheep might feed, where the ſheeps feſcue graſs *(feſtuca orini)* grows in abundance; and if all other places which here lie uncultivated, were to be turned into corn-land, a careful huſbandman might raiſe crops.

May 15th, I rode to ſee the gardens of Alexandria, having procured an equipage new to me: it was an aſs with an Arabian ſaddle. Where I before reſided I had walked in gardens of lemon, orange, fig, and mulberry-trees; had ſeen fields filled with vines; had travelled through foreſts of olive-trees; and reſted myſelf in the agreeable groves of cypreſſes; but I ſaw none of theſe eaſtern glories in Egypt: palm or date-trees now ſhaded me.

July 3d. Now was the time to catch ſnakes, the great heats bringing forth theſe vermin. I procured the common viper, the ceraſtes of Alpin, jaculus, and an anguis marinus. The woman that catched them handled them without fear, as our ladies do their laces. With great calmneſs ſhe took the ſnakes from her body, and put them in the bottles of aqua vitæ. Doubtleſs the woman had ſome unknown art which enabled her to handle thoſe creatures, but on this ſubject ſhe would not open her lips. This art of faſcinating ſerpents was known to the Africans, as appeared from the Marii and Pſylli, who were Africans, and ſhewed proofs of it at Rome. It is ſaid, that the art is only known to certain families, who never meddle with other poiſonous animals, ſuch as ſcorpions, lizards, &c. which are catched by different perſons. Thoſe that faſcinate ſerpents eat them both raw and when boiled, drink the

the broth of them; but in particular they eat ſuch a diſh when they go out to catch them.

The 17th, after we had rid through the miſerable narrow, foggy, and unpaved ſtreets of Cairo, we came into a ſpacious and uninhabited plain, where grew ſome ſycamores and tamariſks.

We afterwards came to Old Cairo, and ſaw ſome large, and according to the taſte of this country handſome houſes, which are the country ſeats of the Turkiſh grandees: we paſſed the Nile in a flat-bottomed boat, and landed at Giſa, a handſome village: it gave me ſingular pleaſure to ſee good huſbandry practiſed. At this time every thing was like our autumn; the fields were dry and bare, not a green leaf to be ſeen, except in ſome places where the fields were ſown with cucumbers and ſeſamum (oily grain.)

We ſupped with the Scheick, who treated us very hoſpitably. Arriving at the pyramids, I found the difference between ſeeing a thing with ones own eyes, and thoſe of others. I had read deſcriptions of theſe pyramids; I had ſeen drawings of them, and the pyramids themſelves at various diſtances; but was ignorant, until I came within twenty yards of them.

Jan. 1, 1751, the Mecca Caravan returned to Cairo: it ſhould ſeem that one hundred thouſand ſouls coming into a city on one day, would occaſion a great change in the price of proviſions; but it did not, they were gueſts expected.

Mar. 13th we paſſed by Mauſora. The 15th we got to Damiata, from whence is annually ſold ſixty thouſand ſacks of rice, of which the greateſt part goes to Turkey, and ſome to Leghorn, Marſeilles and Venice. Rice is one of the chief productions of Egypt.

Apr. 1ſt we anchored before Jaffa, called Joppa in the holy ſcriptures, after four days voyage from

Da-

Damiata. The 7th we got to Jeruſalem, which reckons twenty thouſand Jews among its inhabitants: we went from thence to Jericho, and croſſed a vale in which the Arabians had ſown barley for their horſes, and this was the only cultivated ſpot of ground on a whole day's journey between Jeruſalem and Jericho. Returning to Jeruſalem, and going from thence to Bethlehem, I ſaw a huſbandman moiſtening the earth as he plowed, through a reed fixed to the plough: to this reed was added a pipe, which was held by his arm, and was tied into a leather bag filled with water and reſting on his ſhoulder.

From Nazareth we travelled to Mount Tabor, whence we could ſee Samaria. We came to Sidon on the 14th: the gardens of this town are the moſt remarkable things in it. On the road from Acra to Sidon we ſaw a herdſman, who reſted with his herd of goats, eating his dinner, conſiſting of half-ripe ears of wheat, which he roaſted and eat with as good an appetite as a Turk does his pilaw.

I left Sydon 23d of May 1751, and ſet ſail for Cyprus. I undertook a journey from Larnaco to Saint Crux, the higheſt mountain in the iſland. On the 9th having only my ſervant and a guide with me, we went into a village near the mountain, after midnight, where a ſhepherd lent me his reſting-place, under an olive-tree, as it was too late to get a lodging. On the top of the mountain is a Greek hermitage, with three or four rooms and a ſmall church. I there met with a Monk, who quitted his hut to accommodate me: here I was refreſhed with a moſt agreeable cool air; on one ſide I had a proſpect of the ſea, on the other the whole iſland.

Famaguſta is in ruins; all the houſes built by the Venetians are nearly demoliſhed: there are now no more than three hundred inhabitants in the town, moſt

moſt of them Turks, who poſſeſs the miſerable remains of the once-famous Famaguſta.

The 30th we ſailed by Caramania. The 2d of July we came in ſight of Rhodes, where lye ſome Turkiſh men of war. The iſland is governed by a Baſha, the inhabitants being Turks and Greeks.

Himia, a little and almoſt unknown iſland, is oppoſite Rhodes. In the bottom of the ſea, the common ſpunge is found in abundance. The inhabitants fiſh up this ſpunge, by which they get a living, as this article is much uſed by the Turks in their bathings. A girl in this iſland is not permitted to marry, until ſhe has brought up a certain quantity of ſpunges.

We had been at ſea twenty days, when, on the 8th, we came in ſight of Stanchio: we had on board a Derviſe, who complained bitterly, not for want of bread, though he had been without it for ſeveral days; but for ſomething more neceſſary to him, viz. opium: with pity I ſaw a young man become emaciated, and ſeized with ſwimmings, for want of opium, which by habit he had made neceſſary to his exiſtence: however, it is not now ſo much is uſe, as the janniſſaries have found means to explain the law, and admit the uſe of brandy, which they prove was not forbid by their prophet, as it is prepared by fire, and of courſe pure and clean: opium made them ſtupid and trembling, now brandy makes them mad and dropſical.

The crocodile does a deal of miſchief, often killing and devouring women, who go to fetch water, and children playing on the ſhore, or ſwimming in the river. In the ſtomach of one diſſected before the Engliſh Conſul, they found the bones of the legs and arms of a woman, with the rings which are worn in Egypt for ornaments.

Flax

Flax is much cultivated in Egypt: a conſiderable quantity is yearly exported to Venice and Leghorn. Balſam of Mecca is brought from Petrea Arabia, where the trees grow in the mountains. The Arabians carry the balſam to Mecca, and there ſell it during the time the caravan from Egypt and Turkey are there; by the caravan it is carried to Damaſcus and Cairo, thence through all Turkey: in Cairo the French have eight merchants houſes, and ſell annually to the Turks in Egypt five or ſix hundred bales of cloth, each bale at five hundred ducats. The cloth which the French export to the Levant, is not ſo good as what they manufacture for themſelves, the laſt being cloſe and good; but that which they export is thin, and ſoon wears out. The Engliſh have only one houſe there, as their cloths are much better, and conſequently dearer; but the inhabitants prefer cheapneſs to goodneſs.

In Aleppo, which is the prettieſt town in the Turkiſh empire, there are nine French and eight Engliſh houſes, who trade to Perſia and India. When Perſia is at peace, they can gain three hundred per cent on their broad cloths; as that country is colder, and requires a thicker manufacture than the thin and wretched French cloths. The Turks admire a gay colour and ſplendid appearance; the Perſians examine more into the value of the goods. The Engliſh diſpoſe of eight or nine hundred bales of cloth every year at Aleppo.

There are plants in Egypt, which have lived ſix hundred years, and perhaps have not had ſix ounces of rain; this may be ſaid of the old ſycamores round Cairo, and in Upper Egypt. The Nile, the wonderful Nile, affords that which heaven denied them. The country is a river from the beginning of Auguſt, to the latter end of October. From this time to the beginning of April, the water is dried

way, and the whole country is covered with ſlime or
ıud, which makes Egypt fruitful. In October
nd November, the huſbandman then ſows his corn
ith aſſurance of a plentiful crop; then come forth
ıe ſpontaneous plants of Egypt. Harveſt concludes
ı the month of April. After harveſt begins a
readful ſeaſon, a ſummer in which the earth cracks
ith heat.

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